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ABSTRACTS OF PAPERS READ AT THE SIXTEENTH
CONFERENCE FOR EDUCATION IN THE
SOUTH, HELD AT RICHMOND, VA.

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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Letter of transmittal.....	5
I. Cooperation.....	7
A. The conference on cooperation. D. H. Hill.....	7
B. Fundamental principles of cooperation. E. M. Toualey.....	7
C. From the grower's standpoint. L. C. Corbett.....	8
D. Typical cooperative enterprises. W. J. Shuford.....	9
(a) A cooperative creamery.....	9
(b) A cooperative egg-selling association.....	10
E. Seven obstacles to cooperation. W. E. Halbrook.....	11
F. Cooperative credit: The American need. John Lee Coulter.....	12
G. The pioneer credit associations in the United States. Leonard G. Robinson.....	13
H. Cooperation and the rural schools. T. J. Coates.....	15
II. The rural problem.....	16
A. Business men and the rural problem. Harry Hodgson.....	16
B. Farm tenancy in the South. E. C. Branson.....	19
C. The rural problem and transportation. L. C. Johnson.....	23
D. A country life survey. P. H. Rolfe.....	24
E. Man and the land. Henry Exall.....	25
III. The farm demonstration work.....	27
A. Origin and development of the work. Wallace Buttrick.....	27
B. Demonstration work in Louisiana. Mason Snowden.....	28
C. The boys' and girls' club work. O. B. Martin.....	31
IV. The country church.....	32
A. Social service and the country church. Rev. B. M. Beckham.....	32
B. The rural church and public health. Ennion W. Williams, M. D.....	33
C. The country church and good literature. P. P. Claxton.....	34
D. Creed adopted by the country church conference.....	34
V. Taxation reform.....	36
A. The need for reform. C. L. Raper.....	36
B. The principles of assessment. Lawson Purdy.....	36
C. The local assessor. T. S. Adams.....	37
D. Results of improved assessment methods in West Virginia. Fred O. Blue.....	38
VI. Education of women in the country.....	40
A. The conference on education of women in the country. D. B. Johnson.....	40
B. An indictment of the rural school. H. L. Whitfield.....	43
C. How to relieve the drudgery of women on the farm. Joe Cook.....	44
D. How can the country school as it now is help the woman on the farm? Susie V. Powell.....	45
E. The qualifications of woman in the home. Miss I. E. Lord.....	46

CONTENTS.

	Page.
VI. Education of women in the country—Continued.	
F. How can the girls' industrial club work be made a part of the rural school work? Miss S. V. Powell.....	47
G. How the Department of Agriculture aids the home maker. C. F. Langworthy.....	48
VII. Problems of the rural school.....	50
A. Plans of State supervisors for rural school improvement. L. J. Hanifan.....	50
B. Rural school supervision. Albert S. Cook.....	52
C. The need of a county unit. A. C. Monahan.....	52
D. The educational awakening in Kentucky. T. J. Coates.....	54
E. Teaching woodlot management in rural schools. E. R. Jackson.....	56
F. Teaching agriculture in the one-room rural school. E. E. Sell.....	57
G. Demonstration schools. T. J. Coates.....	57
H. The conference and the rural schools. P. P. Claxton.....	58
VIII. Training and certification of teachers.....	61
A. Changes in the normal school curriculum. L. J. Corbly.....	61
B. Training rural teachers by means of high schools. Joseph S. Stewart.....	62
C. Some general principles with regard to certification of teachers. T. J. Wooster.....	64
D. The certification of teachers in the Southern States. E. E. Rall.....	65
IX. High schools in the South.....	67
A. What has been done in Alabama. James S. Thomas.....	67
B. The commission on accredited schools of the Southern States. N. W. Walker.....	68
X. College extension work: Report by E. D. Sanderson.....	71
XI. The trend in negro education. W. E. Avery.....	75
XII. Higher education of women.....	77
A. Improvement in standards of southern colleges since 1900. Elizabeth Avery Colton.....	77
B. What should the bachelor's degree represent? Miss Eleanor Lord.....	79
C. Public opinion and higher education of women. Edward K. Graham.....	80
D. Keats for the kitchen. Lawrence F. Abbott.....	81
XIII. Concluding remarks on the conference. Walter H. Page.....	83
INDEX.....	85

LETTER OF TRANSMITTAL.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,

BUREAU OF EDUCATION,

Washington, D. C., May 27, 1915.

SIR: The Conference for Education in the South, which for 16 years has held its annual sessions at different places in the Southern States, is unique among educational conferences, in that its membership does not consist chiefly of teachers and school officers, but of farmers, professional men of all kinds, business men, and women of varied interests, and in the further fact that its discussions are not confined to problems of educational theory, school organization, and schoolroom practice, but include rather the broader problems of education in their relation to State, society, and industrial and commercial life. Its members are all interested in the upbuilding of the Southern States. Every question on the program is considered with reference to its practical application to life and conditions in these States. This gives to the discussions of the conference a peculiar value not only for those interested in the broader problems of education and life in this section, but also for those with similar interests elsewhere.

The program for the sixteenth conference held at Richmond, Va., April 15-18 of this year was unusually rich in matter of both local and general interest. For this reason I recommend that the accompanying digest and summary, prepared at my suggestion by Mr. W. Carson Ryan, of this bureau, be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Education.

Respectfully submitted.

P. P. CLAXTON,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

profit-making and profit-taking system ordinarily called competition or capitalism. In other words, cooperation is doing business for service instead of for profit.

Unquestionably the best form of carrying on business is that of cooperative methods, wherever the people have the spirit to carry them out. The participants must be imbued with a desire for fair dealing between themselves, and with a wish to see the movement spread. In other words, aside from the economies that may be brought to each participant in the way of dollars and cents, they must give up all idea of making profits from each other and be possessed of the missionary spirit. They must realize that if such a mode of doing business is good for them, it is good for their neighbors in the adjoining town, county, and State. They must realize that it is a great reform movement, as well as a means of getting more for their produce or reducing living expenses.

When attempted with these ideals in mind, voluntary organizations will spring up all over the land and be conducted successfully by the people themselves. It is indispensable that farmers, as well as city workers, shall work together for their own interests and for the national welfare. If they do not do this, no Government activity, no legislation, not even better schools, will greatly avail.

There should be a law on the statute books of every State authorizing cooperative organizations to adopt and practice the following essential fundamental principles:

1. Equality of vote, regardless of investment or shares held. (This would also do away with voting by proxy.)
2. Interest on shares or capital invested to be limited to the current rate of interest in the community.
3. A division of the balance of the profits in proportion to patronage, instead of upon invested capital.
4. Allowing to nonmembers one-half as large dividends on their patronage as to members.
5. Unlimited membership, without class distinction; inviting all persons, high or low, rich or poor, to unite on terms of equality.
6. Division of profits among employees pro rata to the business done by them with the association, counting salary paid the same as patronage.

C. FROM THE GROWER'S STANDPOINT.

By L. C. CORBETT,
United States Department of Agriculture.

Some of the advantages of community cooperation from the growers' standpoint are: Fewer and better varieties, standard grades, uniform packages, a community trade mark, a community reputation, p. o. b. sales, shipment in carload lots, more effective

distribution, which means quicker delivery to the consumer, a saving in freights and overhead charges, avoidance of gluts, a steady supply throughout the whole distribution period, and continuous contacts with the markets. As to collective buying, it is believed that purchases should be confined to consumable supplies, such as implements, seed, fertilizers, packages, etc. The community may purchase such commodities in bulk or at wholesale, or, in the case of fertilizers, it may buy the ingredients and do its own mixing. In addition to the saving in the first cost of materials, the community supplies its own filler and saves transportation upon it.

The loan features of the community's activities, if properly conserved and carried out, would do for the American community what the various agricultural banking activities have done for Germany, namely, be the means by which loans for improvement and loans for crop production can be had either on long or short time at very reasonable interest rates. It would accomplish the important result of making the greatest asset of the country, namely, the land and the improvements upon it the basis of financial transactions. Under our present financial system this asset is not taken into account in financial dealings other than those which involve long-time loans or mortgages. If the farmers of a community become the underwriters of the loans to a community, the land and the improvements upon it which these individuals possess would immediately become the basis of the community's securities. This would mean ready or "dynamic" money for farmers at reasonable interest rates and long-time loans at interest rates even more advantageous than those now enjoyed by large corporations or municipalities.

D. TYPICAL COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISES.

By W. J. SHUFORD, Hickory, N. C.

(a) A COOPERATIVE CREAMERY.

Organized June 1, 1910, with 30 patrons. Number of cows, 300. At present, 150 members; 600 cows.

Original investment, \$1,500, all borrowed from bank. Original cost of equipment, \$1,000; rented building. Present investment, \$4,500; incorporated for \$5,000.

Duties of manager. Looks after all business, buying and selling, collections, attending to correspondence, and practically acts as treasurer. Salary at beginning, \$25 per month; at present, \$50.

Buttermaker looks after the plant, attends to making butter, shipping and receiving cream, pasteurizing, testing, etc. Has helper and bookkeeper.

Each patron takes shares in the creamery; par value, \$10; interest, 4 per cent. All profits divided among the patrons according to the

profit-making and profit-taking system ordinarily called competition or capitalism. In other words, cooperation is doing business for service instead of for profit.

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Each patron takes shares in the creamery; par value, \$10; interest, 6 per cent. All profits divided among the patrons according to the

amount of business furnished. Nonpatrons get 1 cent per pound less for butter fat than patrons.

Cream and eggs collected by drivers. Costs about 2½ cents per pound butter fat to collect cream. Farthest patron, 12 miles from the creamery; subroutes. Gather cream three times a week.

Patrons paid on the 15th of each month. Plan is to pay out all that is taken in over and above expenses and a small sinking fund.

(b) A COOPERATIVE EGG-SELLING ASSOCIATION.

Any number of farmers from six up can start an egg-selling association. They should have enough hens to furnish at least two cases of eggs per week at the season of the year when egg production is the lightest.

The amount of capital necessary to start might be as low as \$50 or \$100, depending upon the number of members. There should be an initiation fee of \$5 to get the necessary capital, or enough members might borrow from the local bank the necessary capital to begin business, each farmer indorsing the note. Organize by getting the farmers and their wives together to talk the matter over. There should be four or five meetings, and the subject thoroughly discussed, before getting down to business. If possible, organization should be perfected through a farmers' union (local) or any other association of farmers or by the school trustees of a district. The farmers should secure some central location in the neighborhood that would be accessible to all who might wish to join the association. The schoolhouse during the school term could be a place for the gathering of the eggs. The children could bring in the eggs when they come to school. Sales, etc., could be looked after by the teacher.

Constitution and by-laws should be very simple. There should be an agreement in writing specifying fresh, clean eggs gathered daily and delivered at least twice a week to the association for a given period; and rules should be made that if a patron brought in bad eggs over three times he would be dropped from the association.

A stamp should be given each member with a number on it as a means of identification, together with an agreement to attend a meeting when called by the president.

Officers should consist of president, secretary, manager, and treasurer, with a governing board of from four to six directors. Possibly it would be best to combine the offices of secretary, treasurer, and manager.

Some near-by market should be selected and a good grocer found who desires a good quality of eggs. Hotel and college trade should also be cultivated.

Shipments should be made two or three times a week in warm weather, and twice a week at other times of the year.

A record should be kept of all eggs received. If any profits accrue, they should be divided among the patrons at the end of the year, in proportion to the amount of business furnished.

Cash should be paid for all eggs as bought, price based on daily market reports.

Start the association in a small way, give it a name, and sell your eggs under this name. All goods should be carefully packed in cartons.

E. SEVEN OBSTACLES TO COOPERATION.

By W. E. HALBROOK, Choctaw, Ark.

In the rural communities where I work we have seven prominent characters whose early individualistic training failed to fit them adequately for the new era of cooperation.

The first I denominate as "Squire Bell Wether," a man who has been allowed to dominate the affairs of his vicinity for a generation. He is frequently surrounded by a coterie of sons, sons-in-law, and renters, who readily gravitate about this core of human dictation. His offspring are in the rural school, to be molded into social factors.

Second is his brother-in-law, Mr. "Rule-or-Ruin." This character is more blustery and bloodthirsty, a braggadocio, who takes a delight in "bustin' things up," especially if he was not previously consulted. His offspring are in the school, to be molded into social factors.

Third is Mr. "Party San," the man who glories in the form of his own political party, who considers all others rascals, and has had so many tilts with his neighbors during elections that harmony on any community proposition is precluded. His offspring are in the school, to be molded into social factors.

Fourth is Mr. "Modern Pharisee," a cousin to "Party San." He pins everything to the creed of his church, and has no use for those who hold to any other. He will not tolerate the selection of any of those other sects as a factor in his community's development. His offspring are in the school, to be molded into social factors.

Fifth is Mr. "Easy Goer," who is complimented by his neighbors as a man who attends strictly to his own business. Little cares he who is elected director or trustee, how much school they have, or what kind of society the community has. He never proposes anything good, nor gives aid to anything proposed by others. Sometimes he says, "It might be a good thing if they would carry it out just right." His offspring are in the school, to be molded into social factors.

Sixth is Mr. "Sour Grouch," a peculiar personage. He has an acid reaction on alkalies, and an alkaline reaction on acids. He quarrels with his neighbors, finds fault with his preacher, thinks

something is always wrong with the school, and nags his children. Querulous and choleric, he sends his offspring to the school, to be molded into social factors.

Seventh is Mr. "Tight Fist." He does not particularly oppose anything that will enhance the value of property in his community, but do not call on him to contribute one penny. In his eye, book companies are robbers, teachers asking \$40 are extortionate, preachers are living altogether for the money, and the whole world is "on the beat." His offspring are in the school, to be molded into social factors.

These seven characters, with "Sister Telltale" as disseminator, constitute the raw material of the hills. Somehow their individualistic traits must be utilized for the benefit of society in this cooperative age, and the training must be given in the school.

F. COOPERATIVE CREDIT: THE AMERICAN NEED.

By JOHN LEE COULTER,

Bureau of the Census, Washington, D. C.

The population of the United States is increasing more than twice as rapidly as agricultural production. The most important defects in the present condition of agriculture as an industry are: (1) Primitive methods of financing the establishment of new farms in undeveloped areas. (2) Lack of facilities for bringing woodland and other unimproved land into use. (3) Archaic systems of land-title registration. (4) Prevalence of tenant systems. (5) Out-of-date systems of teaching country boys and girls. (6) Crop specialization and absence of modern systems for financing farm operations.

A constructive program is contained in the following 10 recommendations:

(1) Establish a system whereby new farms may be created and more land may be brought into farms. Land for sale or available for settlement should be listed and described by the State, so that prospective farmers might become acquainted with all the possibilities.

(2) Improve, clear up, and insure land titles, and fix boundaries, so that lenders and borrowers, buyers and sellers, may save time and money, and that worry and risk may be eliminated.

(3) Authorize the formation of land-mortgage associations for farmers, and outline scope of activities.

(4) Amend State and national laws in such a way that it will be possible for State and national banks and trust companies to handle the class of securities which farmers are best able to furnish.

(5) Establish a system by which farmers may become owners of land by a series of payments on the amortization plan. State funds

of various kinds (such as educational, insurance, etc.) might be used for this purpose.

(6) Improve the leasing system so that tenants may become more permanent in their communities and may accumulate enough to make first payment and eventually become owners. Long leases with compensation to tenants for improvements and betterments are necessary.

(7) Reform the courses and methods of teaching arithmetic in country schools, show farm boys and girls the possibilities of farm accounts and the first principles of banking.

(8) Perfect the system of rural commercial credit by authorizing the formation of credit unions and prescribing their peculiar field in this country.

(9) Extend insurance in agriculture as rapidly as possible in order that all may bear the burden of unforeseen happenings more nearly equally.

(10) Eliminate as rapidly as possible the present store-credit system by the establishment of the cooperative store, by a reorganization of farm practice and the establishment of a more regular farm income, and by use of the credit unions.

G. THE PIONEER CREDIT ASSOCIATIONS IN THE UNITED STATES.

By LEONARD G. ROBINSON,
Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, New York City.

Last year a poor Hebrew immigrant—let us call him X—bought a small farm in Nassau, Rensselaer County, N. Y. Ten years in a sweatshop had impaired his health, and he was advised by his physician to live in the country. By dint of pinching economy he had saved up \$1,000. The farm he bought cost \$3,000. He paid down his \$1,000 and gave a first mortgage for the balance of \$2,000 at 6 per cent. With a bare farm on his hands he turned to the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society of New York. From that society he received a loan of \$1,000 to equip his farm.

Everything seemed to go along fairly well. But in the spring, when in the midst of his plowing, X lost one of his horses. His first thought was of the aid society. Time was very precious, however, and every day counted just then. He therefore went to Y, from whom he had purchased his first team. Yes, Y would be glad to sell him a horse, but he must have at least half cash. X then went to Z, who, he knew, lent money occasionally to the farmers in the neighborhood. Z could let him have \$50 for three months provided he signed a note for \$75 at 6 per cent. X had no alternative.

He took the \$50 and bought a horse for \$100, giving a note for the balance of \$50 for three months, also at 6 per cent. It therefore cost X \$26.88 for the use of \$100 for three months, or at the rate of 107½ per cent per annum.

The following spring X again lost a horse. He saw three or four of his neighbors, and within an hour he obtained a loan of \$100, for which he paid interest at the rate of 6 per cent per annum, or \$1.50 for the same accommodation for which he had paid \$26.88 only the season before.

What was it that caused the extraordinary change in this farmer's ability to borrow? The answer is *cooperative credit*.

The question of rural credit is one of the burning questions of the day. Our aid society, in its work with Hebrew farmers, had long realized the need of short-time personal credit by the American farmer, but it was not until 1909 that we were prepared to attack the problem in earnest. By-laws were drafted, and an educational campaign was inaugurated. The idea of cooperative credit was seized upon by the Jewish farmers with avidity, and several farmers set to work to raise funds for the organization of credit associations. The form of organization of these credit unions is similar to that of the Raiffeisen banks, in so far as that system could be adapted to American conditions and to the peculiar needs of the situation.

We have to-day 17 thriving credit unions—the first and so far the only cooperative credit banks on American soil. Eight of them are in New York, five in New Jersey, and four in Connecticut. Three were organized in 1911, five more in 1912, and nine more this year. The eight credit unions doing business last year reported on December 31 a total membership of 251. Their outstanding shares (\$5 each) were 865. They had been in operation for a period averaging 13 months, during which time they made 411 loans, aggregating \$28,140, nearly seven times their share capital. Their net profits for this period amounted to \$545.48, or at the rate of about 12½ per cent per annum on that capital.

One of the most marked benefits resulting from these credit unions is the virtual stamping out of usury in the communities in which they exist. The farmer, finding no difficulty in obtaining a moderate loan for productive purposes quickly and cheaply, no longer has to depend upon the generosity of his neighbors, the forbearance of the local storekeeper, or the cupidity of the usurer.

Not the least important is the moral and educational value of these credit unions. They teach their members business methods and self-government. They imbue them with self-reliance and self-respect. They endow them with a high sense of mutual responsibility, stimulate them to further efforts in the direction of cooperation and mutual self-help, and make them better farmers and better citizens.

H. COOPERATION AND THE RURAL SCHOOLS.

By T. J. COATES.

State Supervisor of Rural Schools, Kentucky.

Cooperation is team work. Cooperation means an organization of men for some common end. Cooperation is the antithesis of individualism. Cooperation means an increase of power; and power may be a good or a bad thing according to the way in which it may be used. A cooperation of good men, of intelligent men, for a noble purpose is a good thing; but a cooperation of ignorant men led by selfish and unscrupulous leaders may be a very dangerous thing.

Again, cooperation will no doubt increase material wealth; but an increase of wealth without a corresponding spiritual growth may prove little better than a curse. The ideal of more corn and more hogs is a good one, provided they do not make the grower a greater "hog" than he was before. One of the most alarming "signs of the times" is the drift of people from the country to the town. Out of over 1,100 cases that I have personally investigated, over 1,000 of these removals were caused by a desire for school, or church, or social advantages. Now, a cooperation that simply enables people to make more money without building up the school, the church, and social life in the country will only accelerate the migration from rural to urban communities. It seems to me, therefore, that the heart of this whole matter is the upbuilding of the rural school, because without it the rest of our efforts will prove to be in vain.

II. THE RURAL PROBLEM.

A. BUSINESS MEN AND THE RURAL PROBLEM.

Report by HARRY HODGSON, Athens, Ga.

Business men, bankers, merchants, railway officials, and representatives of commercial organizations from the entire South met at Richmond to consider the rural problem and to formulate a plan for commercial aid in developing the farm and farm life.

The chairman of the conference, Gen. Julian S. Carr, of North Carolina, urged first of all that a way be found to hold the young people on the farms. Gen. Carr pointed out various pressing needs: Better methods of intercommunication; organization of clubs in the country for educational and social purposes; the supplanting of the tenant by the farmer who tills his own soil; greater interest by the agricultural schools and colleges in developing and improving agricultural resources; and cheaper working capital for the farmer, to be provided by rural credit banks.

John Leo Coulter presented a series of tables showing the volume of the leading crops now produced by southern farmers. This was the first complete presentation of the number of southern farmers interested in specified crops, together with the extent of their interest. The weak spots in southern farming were strikingly brought out. Dr. Coulter called special attention to the large amount expended by southern farmers to purchase feed for their live stock. In the States of the South Atlantic division 30 out of every 100 farmers purchase feed, and in 1909 these farmers expended almost \$20,000,000, or an average of \$57 per farm, for this purpose. In the east South Central division 28 farmers out of every 100 purchase feed, and the total amount expended was almost \$16,000,000, or \$54 per farm, while in the west South Central division 29 farmers out of every 100 reported expenditures of almost \$25,000,000, or \$89 per farm. This feed apparently came from districts outside the South.

Mr. J. A. McKee, Kentucky; Hon. E. J. Watson, commissioner of agriculture, South Carolina; and Mr. J. W. Newman, commissioner of agriculture, Kentucky, showed the results of unskilled and wasteful tillage, indicating at the same time how conditions could be remedied.

Commissioner Newman stated boldly that any farmer who depended upon commercial fertilizer alone for fertility of the soil would land in the poorhouse. He urged leguminous crops as the sure means for soil upbuilding. He concluded with the statement: "Soil fertility can be conserved only through education." Mr. Newman then called attention to the fact that only about 50 per cent of the children of the State actually attend school for the full term. He made a plea for instructing those outside the schoolhouse walls in more accurate food production and food preparation.

The tenant evil, its origin, its extent, its increase, and its consequences, economic and social, were set forth by Prof. E. C. Branson, head of the department of rural sociology in the State Normal School at Athens, Ga.¹

Considering the lack of capital among farmers, Dean H. C. Price, Ohio College of Agriculture, and Leonard G. Robinson, director of the Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society, New York, submitted plans for remedying the defect.²

The value of cooperative market association in preventing wasteful marketing and its consequences was demonstrated by Mr. J. C. Caldwell, president and secretary of a number of cooperative organizations centering at Lakefield, Minn. The special problem of cotton marketing was discussed by the Hon. John L. McLaurin, of South Carolina, and by the Hon. E. F. Noel, of Mississippi. After calling attention to the serious drawbacks for the farmer in the present economic situation, Mr. McLaurin advocated that the State provide a warehouse for the storage of the farmer's cotton. The State was not to lend money, but to give a receipt which would enable the farmer to borrow money in the regular way. He urged that the cotton crop was especially worthy of governmental protection, inasmuch as it supports one-fifth of the population of the United States, gives employment to as many more in manufactures, and at the same time is a chief factor in maintaining the Nation's balance of trade.

A practical plan for community growing and handling of cotton was submitted to the conference by Charles J. Brand, of the United States Department of Agriculture. "The first ideal in community cotton growing," said Mr. Brand, "should be the exclusive production of a single variety or of varieties so closely allied that cross pollination will not in a few years decrease the value of the staple." He advocated a community gin, to carry out the development of machine pickers and gin compresses. Mr. Brand suggested a form of organization which provided for sufficient money to conduct the marketing operations of a community by a system of expense notes.

¹ For abstract of this paper, see p. 19.

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² See p. 18.

"Why should the business man be concerned about the rural problem?" was the opening question of the afternoon session, discussed by the Hon. J. J. Davis, of Kentucky. Mr. Davis said:

In the rural community we have the great body of producers, and if in the rural school we can train boys and girls to produce double and quadruple crops of corn and cotton and other great staples, we shall have conferred a very great blessing upon the entire country.

A notable statement of what southern towns and cities are doing for agricultural development was then presented by Mr. Edgar Sydenstricker, editor of the *Lynchburg (Va.) Advance*. Mr. Sydenstricker showed that over 40 centers in the South have consciously grasped the idea of the larger community, and have begun the encouragement of better farming and better farming conditions in their adjacent territory. Seven methods of agricultural aid are employed: (1) Better methods through education by lectures, demonstrations, etc.; (2) increased production through prizes and premiums; (3) the employment of local agricultural experts to supplement the work done by the State and Federal departments; (4) encouraging agricultural and domestic science in the country schools; (5) cooperating in a financial way for building and supporting permanent highways; (6) securing an immigration of white farming population from the North and West and from northern Europe; (7) providing better local marketing facilities and encouraging the direct selling of farm products to the city consumer.

The plan which the city of Atlanta is carrying out for the development of agricultural resources of the surrounding country was outlined by Mr. Walter G. Cooper, secretary of the chamber of commerce. Afterwards there were brief reports upon what other cities were doing.

Mr. Tom M. Morgan, secretary of the chamber of commerce, Florence, S. C., made a plea for the complete cooperation of city and country, and outlined a plan for such a common effort.

The work of the railroads for agricultural development was outlined by Mr. M. V. Richards, of the Southern Railway; Mr. F. H. Le Baume, of the Norfolk & Western; and Mr. D. F. Jackson, of the Central Railway of Georgia. Mr. L. A. Niven, editor of *Southern Farming*, Atlanta, Ga., emphasized the point that farming must produce a profit, else it can not succeed.

To the question, "Why doesn't the southern farmer advance more rapidly," Mr. Theodore H. Price, editor of *Cotton and Finance*, New York, replied: "In the South there is too much individualism and too little imagination." Mr. Price introduced the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted by the conference:

Resolved, That this conference of business men recommend to the executive committee of the Conference for Education in the South that steps be taken to form among farmers permanent suborganizations of this conference in every county of the Southern States for the betterment of agriculture and the promotion of education and cooperation.

B. FARM TENANCY IN THE SOUTH.

By E. C. BRANSON,

State Normal School, Athens, Ga.

1. *Origin.*—The system arose after the war because land and labor were abundant and capital for operating expenses scarce.

2. *Extent.*—The bulk of farm tenancy is in the South. The system embraces more than one-third of our improved acreage and more than one-half of all our farms; in Alabama and South Carolina, more than 3 farms in every 5, and in Mississippi and Georgia, nearly 2 in every 3.

In Georgia 75 per cent or more of the farms in 43 counties, 80 per cent or more of the farms in 17 counties, and in 1 county 94 per cent of the farms are cultivated by tenants. Fifty-eight per cent of our cultivated acreage is under tenancy and 65 per cent of our farmers are tenants. In Mississippi 61 per cent of the cultivated acreage is under tenancy, and 66 per cent of the farmers are tenants.

3. *Increase.*—In 24 States farming by tenants decreased during the last decade, but only 2 of these States were in the old South and only 2 of them in the Middle West. In the South where the per cent of farm tenants was already large in 1900, the increases have been greatest; in some of the States the increase has been startling.

Between 1880 and 1910 farm tenants in Arkansas increased from 31 per cent to 50 per cent, in Alabama from 46 per cent to 60 per cent, in Georgia from 45 per cent to 65 per cent, in Mississippi from 44 per cent to 66 per cent, and in Oklahoma, since 1890, from 7 per cent to 54 per cent—nearly an 80-fold increase in 20 years.

In Georgia the per cent of farms cultivated by owners decreased in 126 counties during the last census period; in one county from 71 per cent to 34 per cent. Landlordism and tenancy threaten the cotton-growing South and the grain-growing Middle West.

4. *Consequences.*—(a.) *Economics alone considered*, farm tenancy is not altogether bad. In Illinois, for instance, the tenant farmer averages one-third more in the per-acre yield of corn, and in Pennsylvania 75 per cent more in the per-acre yield of wheat. In the cotton belt as a whole, farm owners produce just a trifle more cotton per acre—upon an average, 3 pounds more than tenants.

(b) *Farm tenancy a stepping stone to ownership.*—This is markedly true of the negroes, who since the war have acquired almost 20,000,000 acres of farm land in the south, valued at nearly \$300,000,000. Their land holdings in the aggregate make an area a little larger than the State of South Carolina. The negroes now own nearly one-fourth of all the farms they cultivate. In Maryland, Oklahoma, Kentucky, Florida, and West Virginia they own more than one-half of them, and in Virginia nearly seven-tenths of them. Share-tenancy is upon the increase in the South, but here and there, where land is abundant and

labor scarce, the negro rises out of share-tenancy into cash-tenancy and even more rapidly out of cash-tenancy into ownership.

In 1910 the farms cultivated by white owners in Georgia numbered 82,930, an increase of 5,776, or 7 per cent, during the 10 years. The farms cultivated by negro owners numbered 13,698, an increase of 4,324, or 38 per cent, during this period; or more than five times the rate of increase in white farm owners.

On the other hand, the white tenant farmers of the South appear to be losing the fierce land lust of their Anglo-Saxon forbears. They commonly believe that renting is a better business proposition than owning; that raising cotton and buying everything else is the only sensible thing to do, at least the only thing they have much of a chance to do. We are developing in the South a white tenant farm class comfortably satisfied with tenancy.

(c) *Farm properties deteriorate.*—Meanwhile, as a consequence, in the South, as elsewhere, soils deteriorate and farm properties fall into neglect and decay.

(d) *Tenancy getting a strangle hold.*—In general the annual rent upon southern farms has been a large per cent upon the original investment, a very large per cent when the lands were acquired years ago at a small cost per acre. Every three years, for instance, the rent upon a small farm owned by my neighbor more than equals the original cost of the farm. Our farm owners are reconciled to the deterioration of soils under the reckless methods of the renter, because the market value of southern farm land has more than quadrupled during the last 25 years. The large rate of interest in rent revenues and the rapid rise in land values have given our present farm tenancy system a new lease of life.

(e) *A spendthrift system.*—Farming upon the basis of tenancy is a spendthrift system. True, it avails to produce agricultural wealth in lavish abundance. For instance, the farm crops and animal products of Georgia in 1909 amounted to \$275,000,000—a sum more than one-third the total taxable wealth of the State accumulated during her 181 years of existence. Three such crop years yield money enough to buy out every form of property, every business, and everybody in the State—lock, stock, and barrel.

The farmer creates this enormous wealth from year to year, but nobody in Georgia seems able to grip and hold it, or much of it. Cotton money disappears in a cotton county as though by evaporation over night. It slips through the fingers of the tenant, the landlord, and the supply merchant alike.

For instance, in 1911, a year of unexampled prosperity in Georgia, our farms and mills, mines and forests, created a total wealth of nearly \$400,000,000, but the tax digest of that year shows an increase in taxable wealth of less than \$10,000,000. In one year \$300,000,000

of Georgia wealth flew away to the ends of the earth on the wings of the morning.

Counting out the increased wealth in the seven manufacturing counties, the total gain for the country regions of Georgia in 1911 by 2,140,000 people was only \$11,840,000. That is to say, when the year's struggle was ended and the balance sheet struck in the rural regions of the State, the farm population was, upon an average, only \$5.53 better off, or less than \$30 per family. The annual per capita gain in many of these counties fell as low as \$1.25, or less than \$7 per family. In two counties there was an actual decrease of total wealth.

Georgia's population is more than two and a half times larger than in 1850, but we do not have more cattle. We have fewer than we had 60 years ago; 372,000 fewer sheep; and 485,000 fewer hogs. Georgia has steadily increased her per acre yield and her total yield of corn, but last year we imported from aliens and strangers in other States and sections 80,000,000 bushels of corn, and relatively as much wheat and oats, meal and flour, hay and forage, beef and salt-pork sides. The cotton crop of the State did not pay even the food and feed bill of the State; not by more than \$37,000,000.

(f) *Deficiency in home-raised food and feed supplies.*—The explanation is simple. Inevitably the farmer in the cotton belt concentrates upon cotton to the neglect of other crops and other farm activities. For instance, the home-raised supply of animal products in Georgia in the census year amounted to 1½ eggs a week, ¾ of an ounce of butter, and ¾ of a pint of milk a day; ½ of a hog, ½ of a beef, and ½ of a sheep a year, per person. The slenderness of this home-raised ration accounts for the fact that we must import, at high prices, vast quantities of beef and salt-pork sides that might easily be produced at home.

5. *Social consequences.*—(a) *Landownership by the few, land orphanage for the many.*—At bottom the ills and evils of tenancy lie in the landless, homeless condition of these workers on the farm. Civilization is rooted and grounded in the home-owning, home-loving, home-defending instinct; in the pride, the industry, the thrift, and the sense of law and order that landownership naturally inspires. Landownership by the few and land orphanage for the many is a perilous economic and social condition upon which to found a wholesome civilization.

Here, for instance, is a typical cotton-belt county. Eighteen landholders own nearly one-fourth of the county. Altogether the landowners number 439. Only 230 of them till the farms they own. One hundred and four, or nearly one-fourth of all the landowners, do not even live in the county. Five thousand people in the county, or more than four-fifths of the population, are tenants and renters, landless and homeless, sojourners, pilgrims, and strangers in the land,

foot-loose and free to wander at sweet will and pleasure, without abiding interest in the country school, church, or any other cooperative community enterprise.

(b) *A discouraging outlook.*—Little social progress is possible where there is a small number of large landowners. Country schools dwindle, country churches languish, country Sunday schools disappear, country roads are mud-and-dust affairs, and public health is a matter of unconcern. Here the burden of taxation falls upon just a few people, oftentimes less than 5 per cent of the population. Naturally these few large taxpayers draw into their shells like periwinkles, horns and all, when increased taxes are proposed for progressive community enterprises.

Cooperative farm enterprise—in buying, marketing, banking, and what not—is directly related to farm ownership and fatally limited by farm tenancy. Farm tenants lack the impulse, the initiative, the cohesiveness, and the capital necessary for successful cooperation. The onion growers of Texas, the fruit growers of Florida and Georgia, the berry growers of Tennessee, and the truck growers of the Eastern Shore are owners, not tenants.

(c) *An encouraging outlook.*—On the other hand, every kind of rural betterment becomes possible where there is a large number of small landowners who occupy and till the farms they own. Tenancy and isolation disappear, with their attendant train of social ills. Better farming follows, along with better business and better living on the farm. The burdens of taxation are widely distributed. Community effort is easily centered upon better roads, better schools, better churches. Country telephones and cross-country trams multiply. Home comforts and conveniences increase. Organization and cooperation become possible. The necessity for consolidating schools and transporting pupils is at an end. Sooner or later such communities will demand of both schools and churches a fitting response to surrounding life.

(d) *Rural illiteracy in the South* is largely the result of an economic condition and will not disappear until this economic condition changes. They say in the South that it takes 13 months of the year to raise, pick, and market a crop of cotton. Children are useful and in demand throughout the year. The children of the tenant farmer do not have time to go to school—or so the tenant commonly believes.

In the banner agricultural county of Georgia, in the census year, 1,253, or one-fourth, of the white children between 6 and 14 years of age, were out of school; 1,636, or one-tenth, of the white persons 10 years of age or over, were illiterate; and 636, or one-eighth, of the white males of voting age could neither read their ballots nor write their names. The explanation is simple: 2,212—or nearly

exactly two-thirds, of the white farmers are tenants. They represent a landless population of 11,000 people. Cotton farming, tenancy, and illiteracy go hand in hand.

(e) *Migratory character of tenant populations.*—Upon an average, 51 per cent of southern tenants move every year. Because of the constant change of teachers, the children of tenants quickly lose interest in schools and drop out altogether—more than half of them as a rule, between the first and second grades and more than three-fourths of them before they reach the seventh grade. Most of them take up the burdens of life with only one brief term in a primer class.

The hope of the South, rural and industrial, lies in home owners, not in tenants of any sort or kind. In no other way can we hope to preserve a sane, safe balance between our rural and our industrial civilization.

C. THE RURAL PROBLEM AND TRANSPORTATION.

By L. C. JOHNSON,
President Norfolk and Western Railway.

If making a living in the country is to become attractive and popular to the great masses of our people, then we must realize that the increase of population that these conditions will bring to our country communities must be had, to some degree, at the expense of our cities and towns, and would be effective at least in the matter of retarding to some extent their continued growth in population. It might even result in the actual decrease of population in some of our great civic and business centers.

Although it is generally assumed that the agricultural life is less remunerative than careers devoted to the pursuit of other arts and sciences, yet I am very seriously in doubt as to whether, taking the country at large, the balance would be in favor of other industries and professions as opposed to agriculture and its allied vocations. The value of agricultural products is so far ahead of the values which come from other sources of wealth in this country that it must still be recognized as a fact that more actual accumulation of surplus wealth comes from these sources than any other, and the great advantage to the Nation is that wealth arising from these sources is perhaps more evenly distributed among the members of the entire community than that arising from any other industries.

It is true that there are few if any instances of spectacular and sudden accumulation of great fortunes as the result of the pursuit of agriculture; hence no glittering opportunities are held out to young men as an incentive to adopt farming as their life work. Many are doubtless lured to other business ventures on account of speculative possi-

bilities; yet we are now realizing that this country has already reached the stage when it has laid aside the speculative element in any business as a proper asset. To "get rich-quick" is no longer considered the best form, and we are becoming old-fashioned enough to believe once more that it is not quite respectable to attempt to get something for nothing.

The greatest handicap under which the agricultural South suffers to-day is the transportation problem. I do not refer specifically to the lack of railway transportation, though, as a matter of fact, there are many sections of the South that are yet without adequate railway facilities. I do refer, however, to the ordinary roads upon which the farmers are dependent in order to move their products to the neighboring villages or cities to be sold directly to the consumer or to the nearest railway station or wharf for transportation to other sections where the demand exists.

If provision could be made for the construction and maintenance of good roads in the South, there would be marked improvement in the financial results obtained from farming; so marked that the very best of our youth would seek this life as the best and most reliable source of business profit, outside of its many attractions as a mode of living.

D. A COUNTRY LIFE SURVEY.

By P. H. Rolfs,
University of Florida.

Country life surveys were undertaken in four different sections of the United States. One comprised the road through central Mississippi beginning at Macon and extending through north central Alabama, through Georgia in a southerly direction, and westward in south Georgia. This survey covered between 600 and 700 miles, and 1,001 farmers were interviewed. These farmers were taken at random, and not by any special selection.

Of the 1,001 farmers visited, 417, or 41.7 per cent, received bulletins. Of those receiving bulletins, 331, or 79.4 per cent, read them. Of the number who read the bulletins, 148, or 35.5 per cent, made practical application of the information received from the bulletins.

Of the 1,001 farmers visited, 24, or 2.4 per cent, attended farmers' institutes, and of the number attending farmers' institutes, 25 per cent put into practice something learned at the institutes.

Of the 1,001 farmers visited, 44, or 45.4 per cent, took farm papers.

Of the 1,001 farmers visited, 152, or 15 per cent, had received instructions from farm demonstration agents; 142, or 94 per cent, of these practiced some of the information obtained from the demonstration agents.

E. MAN AND THE LAND.

By HENRY EXALL,

Of the Texas Industrial Congress.

Speaking broadly, the land does not grow, but population does grow in geometrical ratio; and the accumulation of the people on the earth is vastly more rapid in the aggregate now than ever before. Two hundred years ago the average duration of human life was from 18 to 20 years. In the more civilized portions of the world it is now from 40 to 50 years. The death rate has fallen, and man's term of life has doubled. This means that the people must be fed fully twice as long as they were a century ago. Our knowledge of health and hygiene saves more children, as well as adults, than ever before; it is therefore impossible to estimate or even imagine what the population of the world will presently be.

The world has no surplus food supply. The burning question therefore is: "How can we reach the multitudes that now occupy and, to a large extent, ruthlessly destroy the land, taking everything from and returning nothing to it, and induce them to change their methods; to use every possible means to conserve its productivity; to save every particle of fertilizing matter and return it to the soil; to convert the sewage and garbage of cities into fertilizers; to grow leguminous plants to be plowed under, to increase the humus and restore the nitrogen and other mineral fertilizing matter extracted by the growing crops; to follow a regular system of crop rotation; to stop waste in the home, on the farm, and in transit; to realize that the life of the nations depends upon the preservation of the essential fertilizing elements in the soil; to instill into the minds of everyone the all-important truth that our greatest material heritage is the acre that will produce?"

The earlier settlers of the United States brought with them from Europe some of the economical agricultural ideas of the older countries, and cultivated and fertilized the lands as their forefathers did, raking the pine needles and oak leaves from the wooded pastures to bed the cowlots and barnyards, so that all fertilizing matter might be absorbed and put back upon the land, to compensate for what the growing crops had taken away. But as the population grew and the younger generations climbed the Alleghenies and viewed with astonishment the seemingly unending acres of the prairie plains where the rich land could be had for the asking, they thought that it was actually boundless and that its fertility was everlasting. This embarrassment of riches made them recklessly extravagant. They became miners of the soil, rather than farmers. Food of every kind was so cheap and plentiful that the older sections of the Union concluded that it was no longer necessary to grow green cover crops to be turned under.

in order to return in part what they were taking from the land. They plowed up and down instead of around the slopes, thus encouraging terrific waste by washing and erosion, until millions of acres of once fertile land were ruined and were no longer useful for agricultural purposes.

So general has this method of spoliation become that it has been stated, upon good authority, that more than half of all lands in cultivation in the United States have greatly deteriorated in their power to produce. Despite the fact that we have, within the past 40 years, put under the plow the choicest part of what is known as the prairie plains, extending from Ohio west through the Dakotas, down the Mississippi Valley, and southwest through Iowa, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, and Texas; and despite the fact that we have learned more about seed selection and have had better agricultural implements for cultivating and for harvesting than ever before, so universally have we robbed the earth, milking without feeding, subtracting without adding, checking out without depositing, that we now produce less wheat and corn combined per acre than we did 40 years ago. In extracting everything from the earth we have failed to create a sinking fund to pay this debt, and have in many instances destroyed both principal and interest.

The ancients robbed the earth slowly, with poor and primitive implements. We rob it rapidly with the most improved agricultural machinery, with horse power, steam power, electricity, and dynamite. Are we following in the footsteps of these older nations, simply robbing more rapidly than they did? Will we call a halt and radically change our methods or will we persist and suffer as they did? We live as if we thought "after us, the deluge"; as if we considered it our province to cut every tree, to dig out every mine, to turn every furrow, to consume everything that exists, forgetting that man's greatest duty to man is to preserve undimmed and unimpaired this earth in all its strength and fruitfulness, to protect posterity alike by the sound constitution that we impart to it, by the reputation that we leave it, by the example of living better, and being better—in other words, by reaching a higher plane than we have been able to reach.

III. THE FARM DEMONSTRATION WORK.

A. ORIGIN AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE WORK,

By WALLACE BUTTRICK,
General Education Board.

When the Conference for Education in the South met in Richmond 10 years ago we had just begun a general survey of educational conditions in the Southern States. In common with most people at that time, we thought that a schoolhouse with a teacher constituted a school, and that if we could only multiply schoolhouses and schools in sufficient numbers the problem of education would be solved.

After the preliminary work of inquiry had been going on for two or three years I was traveling in the South with Dr. Frederick T. Gates, the present chairman of the General Education Board. Mr. Gates remarked:

This is a magnificent climate and a wonderful soil, and there are no better people in the world than those who live on the soil of the South. It is not schoolhouses that these people need; it is not anything that can be given to them that they need; what they need is an opportunity to realize themselves. A great body of agricultural knowledge has been developed by our colleges of agriculture, by experimental farms, and by the United States Department of Agriculture. There is a vast literature of the science of agriculture. If these splendid people in the South could have in some practical way the facts of the science and art of agriculture, there would be no limit to the value of the crops they might raise, no limit to their productive efficiency.

And he added:

The job is to find out how to deliver that body of knowledge to these people.

A year was spent in travel and inquiry. It was sought to ascertain what had already been done to deliver this body of knowledge to present farmers. The school-teacher had tried it, but soon discovered that an attempt to teach a technical science in the elementary school was hardly less than absurd, and that book agriculture is not farming. Bulletins had been published in great numbers, but since 90 per cent of the people who can read do not read, the printed page is a poor medium for the communication of scientific knowledge. In fact it was plain that the place to write this knowledge was on the soil by the farmers themselves in such wise as to increase the value of their crops.

In Texas I met Dr. Seaman A. Knapp. Dr. Knapp was taking agricultural knowledge right out to the farmer on the farm. He did not go to the planter and say: "I have come to teach you something.

I want to show you how to be a good farmer." He had a better method than that. He would say:

I have an excellent cotton seed, and I would like to have you help me demonstrate its value. Will you take some of this seed and plant it on an acre of land? I want you to prepare the soil and make a good seed bed, to cultivate it often and many times, to plant it wide in the rows, so that it may have light and air, and then we will see if between us we can teach your neighbors how to make cotton.

By similar methods he taught them how to make food crops. The movement was creating widespread interest in Texas, Oklahoma, and Arkansas. He had but \$40,000 a year for the work and could not extend it further.

I came back to New York and saw Dr. Gates. We immediately asked Dr. Knapp to come to Washington for a conference. After a protracted interview it was agreed that we should cooperate with the United States Department of Agriculture in extending this work throughout the Southern States. The General Education Board furnished the money for the extension, and by direction of Secretary Wilson, Dr. Knapp supervised the work. We began in Mississippi. It did so well there we very soon took on Virginia and Alabama. The following year it was extended to Georgia, Florida, South Carolina, and North Carolina, the General Education Board paying the expenses. In that way we became a silent partner with the United States Department of Agriculture, and the Knapp movement became possible.

As a result of that work inaugurated by the Department of Agriculture and furthered by the General Education Board the word "demonstration" has become pervasive in all forms of education. Out of that work of demonstration among adult farmers grew the boys' corn clubs and the girls' canning and poultry clubs, of which so much is heard to-day.

It will be noted that the work inaugurated by Dr. Knapp has had for its main object the increase of production: More cotton, more corn, more hay, more butter, more live stock. His most sanguine hopes in respect to increased production have been more than realized. This increased production has developed new problems: The need of better markets, the need of cooperative buying and selling, the need of rural credits. Indeed, the whole question of rural economics has emerged from this movement for increased production.

B. DEMONSTRATION WORK IN LOUISIANA.

By MASON SNOWDEN,

State Demonstration Agent.

The simple fundamental principles of the demonstration work as we have endeavored to put them into practice in Louisiana are:

(1) Increased and profitable crop production per acre is secured by
(a) the preparation of good seed bed; (b) the planting of good seed;

prolific and well bred; (c) giving thorough cultivation adapted to the needs of the plant and the conditions of the soil and climate; (d) using fertilizer to meet the needs of the plant and the deficiencies of the soil, so as to get the greatest returns at the smallest expense; (e) securing the best drainage possible under local conditions.

(2) By the use of improved implements and more and better teams, the farmer increases the amount and quality of work done each day.

(3) By the growing of leguminous crops and a systematic rotation the productive capacity of the acre is largely increased through increased fertility and improved mechanical condition of the soil.

(4) By the raising of live stock, the farmer becomes a manufacturer, changing the coarse products of the farm, such as hay, oats, corn, peanuts, etc., into the high-priced pork, beef, mutton, and horse flesh. Besides the increased prices received for his products, the live-stock farmer builds up his soils by returning the manure to the soil and thus getting a double profit from the crops grown. By the raising of live stock, the inequality of rich land and poor land is wiped out through crop adaptability. For illustration, the poor sandy acre of hill land can not compete with the rich, well-drained river-bottom land in the production of cotton, corn, and sugar cane. But the acre of poor hill land will produce more peanuts and sweet potatoes than the river land. These two crops fed to hogs will give the acre of hill land a much larger net profit than the acre of bottom land can possibly show in the production of corn or cotton.

(5) By making the farm self-sustaining in all departments with a surplus to sell, the productive power of the farmer and the acre are both increased.

(6) The farms of the State should supply the markets of the State with all standard crops that can be profitably produced. The farmers of Louisiana can and should, and I believe will, some day supply all the corn, hay, oats, meats, dairy products, cotton, sugar, and rice that its markets demand or can absorb. This is one of the aims of the demonstration work.

What this work is doing and its actual cash value to the farmers of the State can be seen from the following figures compiled from the 1911 results:

Sixteen hundred and seventy-five demonstrators produced on 33,022 acres an average of 1,063 pounds of seed cotton per acre. The Census Bureau gives the State average as 522 pounds of seed cotton per acre.

Twelve hundred and sixteen demonstrators produced on 16,783 acres an average yield of 28.6 bushels of corn per acre. The Census Bureau reports the State average production per acre as 18.5 bushels.

The 1911 State average yield and the demonstration average of corn were both materially shortened by the long drought of this year.

The increased production of cotton and corn on the above acreage over the State average on an equal number of acres brought the cooperating farmers \$665,055.

The increase in cash values, to say nothing of indirect benefits, was obtained by the expenditure of less than \$35,000.

If the 1,085,115 acres of the State in cotton had produced the demonstration average, it would have meant more than doubling the crop at little extra cost except for gathering.

If the 1,800,000 acres of corn in the State had produced the demonstration average, the crop would have been 51,486,000 bushels against 33,300,000 bushels.

In 1912 the demonstration results for the State were as follows: 1,571 demonstrations in cotton, comprising 36,404 acres, produced an average of 977.6 pounds seed cotton per acre. Of this acreage, overflow more or less seriously affected 9,731 acres. The average production for the State, given by the Census Bureau, is 591 pounds of seed cotton per acre. The State average was also affected by overflow.

There were 1,339 demonstrations in corn, totaling 19,264 acres, averaging 28.7 bushels per acre, with 2,618 acres seriously affected by overflow and insect damage following the flood. The State average is given as 18 bushels, which was also affected by overflow.

The above yields were produced on every type of soil from the Arkansas line to the Gulf, and under varying climate conditions; they are therefore applicable to every acre in cotton and corn in the State.

If it had not been for the 1912 overflow, the demonstration results would have broken all records for the State.

That the influence of the demonstration work has been State wide is shown by the increased per-acre production from 390 pounds of seed cotton in 1910 to 591 pounds in 1912. The total crop in the same period increased from 256,375 bales to 391,437 bales, in spite of boll weevil and overflow.

The greatest change for the better that has come over the State is the attitude of the farmers themselves toward better farming. Six years ago the agricultural worker for better method was scoffed at. To-day his services and advice are sought by a large majority of the farmers. The changing of the sentiment of the conservative agricultural people from one of antagonism to that of a ready acceptance of scientific facts is the greatest work that has been done in Louisiana by the demonstration agents and the other agricultural workers.

C. THE BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUB WORK.

By O. B. MARTIN,

United States Department of Agriculture.

One great end to be accomplished by demonstration agents and school officers, in enlisting men and boys and girls in the different divisions of the work, is to inspire within them a strong and increasing purpose. Only such volunteers are selected as realize the opportunities for success and service, because a poor demonstration is as far-reaching in its results as a good one. The first requisite, therefore, is an earnest purpose, backed by a strong will. Thousands of boys and girls in the adolescent period are in danger of drifting. They seem unable to decide upon their life work. Accordingly, when a 14-year-old boy decides to work an acre in corn and applies his mind and strength to it for a whole year, he is gaining in character and manhood at an age when he most needs it. It is essential to have a consuming purpose. Thousands of boys in the corn clubs have such a purpose, and carry it out for one, two, or three years, with the result that they become stronger for all future undertakings. We do not concern ourselves so much as to whether these boys expect to be farmers. It is our mission to show them the beauty, pleasure, and profit in such work, and leave the rest to the future. We do so with a feeling of confidence in that future.

When 50 or 75 boys in a county, each working for himself, but all having the same purpose, come together in a meeting it is easy for them to organize and cooperate. When these boys become men, there will not be so much difficulty about cooperative marketing or cooperative credit societies. The very badges they use and the trade-mark put on the products the girls sell have a tendency to emphasize the fact that there is a community of purpose and a cooperative form of organization. Let it not be inferred that all of the work of organizing 100,000 men, 75,000 boys and 25,000 girls has been done by demonstration agents. They have only done a part. Thousands of school officers and teachers have aided most cordially and most effectively. There is a great work for them to do. It is a work that no other organization and no other people can do. The united efforts of the country teachers and the demonstration agents point the way to some of the greatest reforms in our school system. I believe the time is coming, in the near future, when teachers in the rural schools at least will be employed for 12 months in the year. About half of the time will be devoted to classroom work and the other half to instructing boys and girls in agriculture, horticulture, and domestic science. They will meet the children in groups at the homes, in the gardens, and on the farms, to aid them in putting into practice what they have been taught in the schoolrooms. When that is done it will be a great thing for the schools, for the people, and for civilization in general.

IV. THE COUNTRY CHURCH.

A. SOCIAL SERVICE AND THE COUNTRY CHURCH.

By REV. B. M. BECKHAM, Danville, Va.

We need pastors trained for church work in the country; men who feel called to this work as truly as any man feels called to the foreign field; men who will give themselves wholly to this work as experts as long as they live, and who will not look upon a country charge simply as a stepping stone to a city station. Such men should be trained as leaders for social service in the country, and should lead country people to see the opportunities before them for their own improvement in material as well as in spiritual affairs. If the church does not furnish such men, where are they to be found? I believe that the only hope for such leadership is in the church. Why should not such men have training in agriculture, fruit growing, stock raising, etc., that they may be the real leaders of their people? The ministry is usually made up of men of culture, who have time for study, and a taste for books. There is no reason why our rural pastors should not keep fully abreast of the times in all that pertains to the well-being of their community; and give their people the full benefit of their knowledge. Newspapers, magazines, and books are constantly pouring from the press on community subjects and the country preacher should take advantage of these to keep abreast of the times.

But the churches should also cooperate with all the other agencies that are working for the improvement of conditions in the rural sections. There are many farmers' organizations that are struggling to express the farmers' sense of need of cooperation. In many places, our educational leaders are honestly trying to carry out this idea. With these and every other similar agency the church should enter into heartiest sympathy. There should be in every community a community center, commanding a section covered by a radius of four or five miles. At this center there should be a church, of course, but not a half-dozen churches where one will suffice. Let each denomination give up each community to the church that can best serve the religious needs of the people. There should also, of course, be a high school at this center, and a Young Men's Christian Association,

a playground, a hall for public entertainments and secular meetings, a pastor's home, and a home for the principal of the high school, who should receive sufficient salary to enable him to live and bring up a family, devoting his life to the work of teaching. This center would do more to bring about a true cooperation of country people for their own improvement than any other one thing, and the church should everywhere take the lead in its establishment and support.

B. THE RURAL CHURCH AND PUBLIC HEALTH.

By ENNION W. WILLIAMS, M. D.,

Health Commissioner of Virginia.

No social agency is more earnest in its demands upon the church for cooperation than public health, and no agency offers a greater return for such cooperation. Public health asks the church to join hands with it in giving men better bodies, and it promises that when men's bodies shall be stronger, their spirits will be nobler. Public health asks the church to assist it in making sanitary the community to which the church ministers; and it pledges the experience of the world to show that when this is done, none will benefit more than the church. Other things equal, the healthy man is the moral man, and the sanitary community is the spiritual community.

The first means of cooperation on the part of the church is in preaching the dignity of the human person, the sanctity of the individual body. This will enable the church to justify the health officer in his demand for a sanitary community—will, indeed, make that demand irresistibly logical. If the body is sacred, then the body deserves a sanitary surrounding and depends upon it. The permanence of our fight for better health must rest, in part at least, upon an awakened public conscience which will view disease as second only to sin, cleanliness as next to godliness.

The church should, in a very practical way, illustrate the necessity of sanitation by being itself a model of sanitation. It should be well ventilated, well kept, supplied with proper outhouses and with a safe supply of drinking water. Many of our rural churches fall far short of this. Cleaned only when filth becomes unbearable, ventilated by chance or accident, generally without any outhouses and supplying water from a rusty bucket and a dirty tin dipper, the church oftentimes is a focus of infection. If it is to stand as the evangel of good health, it must be sanitary. If it is to preach the gospel of fresh air, it must be well ventilated.

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C. THE COUNTRY CHURCH AND GOOD LITERATURE.

By P. P. CLAXTON,
United States Commissioner of Education.

The country minister should know and love the greatest and best in the literature of the world, and should make the best of his opportunity to inspire and guide the reading of young people.

Boys and girls, men and women, in the country, have more time to read than people in the cities. Because of their ability to command their time, and the absence of the distractions of the city, they can read in larger wholes and to better purpose. They have more time to reflect on what they read.

No books are more interesting or more valuable as literature than the books of the Bible, if only they are read as literature, and not as texts to be commented on or to bolster up some peculiar religious doctrine or tenet. And then there are great books of biography, travel, and discovery; books of history that are human documents and tell the story of the people in their constant struggle toward better and higher things; the great epics, dramas, and novels, and the books of song that inspire and comfort. In selecting books for young people and people who have had little of the learning of the schools, it should be remembered that the greatest books are the simplest and the easiest to begin to understand. These books are great because they are simple, because they appeal to the universal human heart and interpret the common experiences of life, the life we all live. The *Iliad* and *Odyssey* of Homer, however comprehensive and inexhaustible they may be, are still simple and easy, and need little explanation for the child. The same is true, especially, of all the great epics. Again, it should be remembered, that these books of literature are works of art, and should not be dissected or mutilated by expurgation any more than should great pictures, statues, or buildings. They reflect and interpret life as it is, and in its fullness. For this reason, especially, are they wholesome—because they are whole. The flour of the whole wheat builds up the body better than that out of which essential elements of food have been bolted and sifted.

The country church has a great opportunity, in that it may become the center of a strong, sweet, wholesome culture through the reading of good books. Every such church should have its reading circle or club.

D. CREED ADOPTED BY THE COUNTRY CHURCH CONFERENCE.

The country church conference of the Conference for Education in the South, believes—

That the church universal is the servant of the Highest but also a minister unto the least and lowest, in His name; that her citizen-

ship is yonder in a far country, but is also here and now among men to-day; that nothing involving the relief of man's estate on the earth is alien to her proper life and work.

And therefore this conference believes—

I. That the church can and ought to be the great central, illuminating, organizing agency in the war upon ignorance and disease, poverty, and sin alike.

That she ought to lead in organizing the best of all to avert the worst from each.

That she can and ought to be an efficient force in public education, in public hygiene—physical and social—in establishing economic, social and civil justice among men; and always, everywhere the voice of righteousness against sin.

II. The conference further believes—

That the country church ought to cherish ideals of efficiency for herself—fewer pastorless churches, more liberal support for her ministry, more country homes for country pastors, fewer churches served by nonresident, absentee preachers with once-a-month sermons, and more and better Sunday schools with larger enrollment and better attendance.

That the country church ought to promote stable citizenship and agricultural prosperity by laying upon the conscience of land barons the sin of joining house unto house and field unto field by exhibiting faithfully the social ills and evils attendant upon land-ownership by the few and land orphanage for the many.

That the country church can and ought to be actively interested in the farmer's field and crops, because they are necessarily related to the farmer's home and children; and in promoting buoyant good cheer in the countryside for sake of the common weal as well as the common wealth.

That the country church can and ought to lead in the campaign for better elementary public schools; for larger sustaining school revenues, for more enlightened ideals of school efficiency; for larger enrollment, better attendance, and less illiteracy in the rural regions.

That the country church ought to join the school authorities in promoting wholesome recreational life as well as prosperous occupational life in the rural regions.

III. And finally this conference believes—

That material prosperity alone will not avail to make country life efficient, satisfying, and wholesome; that all the rural life forces and agencies must work to this end in generous sympathetic cooperation—the business men and the farmers, the teachers, doctors, and preachers, the church and school authorities, the homes and the schools.

V. TAXATION REFORM.

A. THE NEED FOR REFORM.

By C. L. RAPER,

University of North Carolina.

There is everywhere large need for efficiency in the assessment of property for tax purposes. There is a call for efficiency in assessment and taxation, that each child may go to school 6 or 8 months in every year. The spirit of efficiency is demanding a longer school term and more capable and consequently better-paid teachers. There is a call for efficiency in assessment and taxation, that within the reach of every citizen a more effective highway may be constructed and maintained. There is a call for efficiency in assessment and taxation, that each unit of government—the State, the county, the township, the municipality—may be able to employ expert officials.

The Government should always be an exemplar in all things; it should never do them badly or ineffectively. It is the one abiding example of efficiency or inefficiency, of justice or injustice, that the citizen knows. Whenever it assesses for taxation the property of one citizen at 5 per cent of its value and that of another at 65 per cent, as is not infrequently done, efficiency and justice are as impossible in the life of the citizen as they are in that of the Government. Whenever the assessment system permits one township or county to pay a slight part of its dues to the State government, and compels another to pay its full share, efficiency and justice can not possibly be realized. Whenever the assessment system allows the less conscientious citizen to pay little and compels the more honorable one to pay more, if not all he can, as has long been done among us, efficiency and justice can not abide. Whenever the assessment system places a full burden of taxation upon that part of the wealth of widows, orphans, and minors which is in the hands of trustees, and which, if assessed at all, must be put upon the tax books at par value, while the wealth of many able men is assessed at only a slight part of its value, as we know to be the case, efficiency and justice are driven from our midst.

B. THE PRINCIPLES OF ASSESSMENT.

By LAWSON PURDY,

Department of Tax, New York City.

Assessing real estate is a profession demanding technical skill and experience. Assessors, therefore, should be appointed, not elected, and should hold office during good behavior.

Assessors should be adequately paid and required to devote all their time to their official duties. It follows that the smallest assessment district should be large enough to employ fully all the time of one assessor, aided by a sufficient number of clerks. If a county is adopted as the unit for assessment, a single assessor may be able to perform all the work with proper clerical assistance in many thinly populated rural counties.

Adequate tax maps are the essential foundation of proper assessment work. For the lack of such maps hundreds of thousands of acres of land escape assessment throughout the United States annually. Without maps the assessor generally performs his work in the dark; he does not know what he is assessing, and the valuations are often little better than guesses. Without maps comparisons between assessed values are difficult and often impossible.

C. THE LOCAL ASSESSOR.

By T. S. ADAMS,
Of the Wisconsin Tax Commission.

At the root of the evil which still exists are the underpaid, over-worked, untrained, local assessors. Our local assessors, like those in most States, are elected for short terms, paid totally inadequate salaries, and in hundreds of districts are virtually warned in advance that if they perform their work faithfully they will not be reelected. The more I learn of our local assessments, the deeper my wonder becomes that such good work can be done under such adverse conditions. There are actually hundreds of conscientious local assessors accepting the office year after year not because they want either the office or the salary, but because an appreciative local community insists upon their retaining the job. In a very large number of districts, however, the office goes to the inefficient man who has failed in other walks of life or to the political henchman who takes the job primarily to "look after" his friends. It is fatal to expect accurate, conscientious assessing work under such conditions.

The ultimate remedy will probably be found in the appointment of local assessors by the State tax commission or by the supervisors of assessments under civil-service tests; their retention in office during good behavior; together with a compensation adequate for the brains and backbone required in this difficult work. This remedy would, in most States, require a constitutional amendment and is probably many years away.

If it is impossible in the near future to appoint assessors by civil-service tests, much can be done even now. First of all, the assessor can be appointed or elected for a much longer term. The longer

term will enable the ignorant man to learn and the timid man to put away from him for a time the fear of losing his office. Moreover, it would enable the man to stick continuously by his job. By making the local districts fairly large, it would be possible to keep him at work 12 months in the year. Where the district can not be enlarged, however, we might still have the long term, the fairly permanent assessor, by providing for a complete assessment only once in three or four years, instead of, as at present in many States, an annual assessment. Under the present constitution in Wisconsin, we must have at least one assessor for each town, city, or village. We can not enlarge the districts so as to justify the use of the whole time of a well-paid man, but if we can get a well-paid man who will make a thorough assessment once, say, in four years, and spend two or three months each year in making such revision of this quadrennial assessment as can be made in two or three months, we should, with the other features of this system—the county supervisor and the tax commission—have achieved something which, if not utopian, would at least be highly satisfactory.

The assessor must be given time enough to do his work in a business like way; he must be retained in office long enough to attract the kind of men who resent and refuse to place themselves in an office from which they are likely to be kicked as soon as they become efficient; he must be protected from illicit local pressure and from boards of review or superior local officers bent upon protecting some one industry or some particular group of taxpayers; finally, he must in most cases be paid reasonable wages for the work which he does. All these things can be secured by a system which would provide for a quadrennial or triennial assessment to be made by local assessors appointed or elected for three or four years, paid adequate salaries, and working under the general control of a permanent tax commission armed with the powers—particularly those of reequalization and reassessment—with which most of the later State commissions have been invested.

D. RESULTS OF IMPROVED ASSESSMENT METHODS IN WEST VIRGINIA.

By Fred O. Blue,

State Tax Commissioner, Charleston, W. Va.

In 1904, the last year of the old system, real estate in West Virginia was assessed at \$168,000,000, personal property at \$80,000,000, and public utilities at \$30,000,000, a total of \$278,000,000. The transition period from the old to the new was during the years 1905 and 1906. In 1906 real estate was assessed at \$475,000,000, an increase of \$307,000,000; personal property was assessed at \$194,000,000, an

increase of \$114,000,000; public-service property was assessed at \$209,000,000, an increase of \$179,000,000, making a total increase of the assessed valuation of property in the State of \$600,000,000. The total assessed valuation of all property in the State in 1904 was \$278,000,000, and the assessed valuation of the same property in 1906 was \$878,000,000. The assessed valuation of the same property in 1912 was \$1,168,000,000, distributed as follows: Real estate, \$634,000,000; personal property, \$239,000,000; public-service property, \$295,000,000. It is true, of course, that there has been a natural increase in the valuation of property in the State during the years from 1904 to 1912, yet the material increase in the value thereof for assessment purposes has been mainly because of more efficient methods growing out of the change in our laws relating to assessment of property.

VI. EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN THE COUNTRY.

A. THE CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN THE COUNTRY.

Report by D. B. JOHNSON,
President Winthrop Normal College, Rockhill, S. C.

Of all the many conferences none was more interesting and helpful than that of the "Conference on the Education of Women in the Country." The attendance was large at all times and the audience was made up of almost an equal number of men and women. The most significant thing about the Richmond conference was the dominant note in all the discussions, emphasizing the fact that education should be closely related to life, and should be made to serve the people in making their lives and homes better and happier and in improving their material condition as well as their intellectual and spiritual natures. This was particularly true of the conference on the education of women in the country.

Miss Leila A. Russell, of Rockhill, S. C., from her experience gained in visiting the rural sections of York County, S. C., showed what she had found to be the condition of the woman on the farm and traced this condition to the lack of proper training in the rural school: (1) What drudgery makes of the women on the farm through a lack of knowledge of scientific cookery; (2) what ignorance makes of her through lack of sanitation; (3) cause and prevention of disease not taught, therefore training for parenthood is neglected; (4) no training for appreciation of the beautiful; (5) what isolation makes for the woman on the farm.

President J. C. Hardy, of Baylor College, Texas, thought that by vitalizing the present course of study the needs of the schools would be met. He emphasized the necessity for better teachers.

Mrs. Hetty S. Browne, in charge of Winthrop College farm school, urged the need of a complete reorganization of the country schools: (1) The school must train farmers and farm wives; (2) agriculture must be made the central theme to which must be related the more formal subjects, such as reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, etc.; (3) the activities of the farm wife must form part of the daily program; (4) the social side must be emphasized; (5) the coming school must be one of activity and not one of passivity; (6) the influence of the school must be felt in the community not for 6 or 7 or 9 months in the year, but for the entire 12.

Miss Parrish, of Georgia, said that they were all agreed as to the necessity of all these things and had been for 10 years. She asked the pertinent question: "What new and practical measures do you suggest for bringing these things to pass?"

The answer came promptly from *Mr. Coates*: "By putting in 100 Mrs. Brownes, Miss Russells, Miss Fraysers, and Miss Powells" in a work to carry enlightenment to the country schoolhouse and country women. Miss Moore thought that the rural conditions had been exaggerated. In rebuttal it was brought out that the conditions depicted were actual ones.

"How more adequate training would better the life of the country woman" was discussed by *Miss Mary E. Frayser, of South Carolina*.

Miss Frayser maintained that more adequate training for women would make: (1) More efficient housekeepers; (2) better homemakers; (3) more intelligent spenders; (4) woman a producer of financial revenue; (5) woman realize her ability to influence public opinion; (6) woman conserve child life; (7) better health and efficiency for each member of the family, because of a better understanding of the dietary needs of each; (8) the conservation of the life of the country woman by acquainting her with the labor-saving appliances which are justly her dues.

Prof. Benjamin R. Andrews, of Columbia University, presented the subject of "Home economics, or help for the home manager: What domestic science is aiming to accomplish by developing instruction as to foods, clothing, shelter, and home management." He said domestic science is attempting to instruct the woman so that she can put better-balanced food upon the table, which shall meet the various requirements of the different ages, sexes, and occupations represented in the family. He emphasized both the economic and the sociological value of understanding the sources and manufacture of fabrics. He pointed out the need of women understanding simple tests by which they may protect themselves from food and textile adulterations. He called attention to the great gain which would result from training which would enable a woman to conduct the home in relation to the income of the family, its social relationship, its hygienic and educational needs. The woman in the house should be her husband's business partner and the home should be conducted upon a business basis. The income should be carefully apportioned and not spent in a haphazard fashion.

The United States Commissioner of Education, *Dr. P. P. Claxton*, protested against any attempt to exclude from the schools literature, history, music, science, mathematics, and other similar subjects in the effort to make the schools vocational and practical. The most practical thing in the world is an ideal. For good living and for the inspiration necessary to cause the boy or girl to put forth the effort

to attain the knowledge and skill necessary to the making of a good living there must be ideals and desires. Dr. Claxton gave as an example of the power of ideals the folk high schools of Denmark and other Scandinavian countries. It is to these folk high schools—short-course schools for men and women over 18 years of age—that Denmark owes largely her remarkable prosperity in recent years. It is the students from these schools who direct the bacon and eggs societies, cooperative creameries, and other similar organizations. These schools send few of their students to the towns and cities; practically all of them return to the villages and open country. Yet literature, history, civics, and music are considered their most important subjects. Next to these subjects are the sciences, taught in such way as to give them the largest possible cultural value. With high ideals and the desire for better things, the students make the most of every opportunity to gain purely vocational skill.

Dr. Claxton said he believed most heartily in vocational and practical education, and that he was convinced that culture, valuable as it is, does not come wholly or directly from the schools, but is rather a by-product of good living. It comes from working intelligently and skillfully, with strong purpose and good will, for one's own support and for the general good.

The school and the home must be brought closer together, not alone by bringing the work of the home into the school, but also by carrying the school into the home. Home life and experiences should make up a good part of the raw material for the work of the school. The principles and lessons learned in school should find immediate application in the work of the home, shop, and field. Much of the home work should be directed by the teacher. At least the school should understand it, sympathize with it, intellectualize it, and idealize it.

The ideal arrangement would be a school term of 300 days in the year, with daily sessions of about three hours. Three lessons of intensive school work and six hours of intelligent, purposeful, productive home work—this would approach the ideal. With such an arrangement, boys and girls might well attend school from 6 years of age till manhood or womanhood is reached. Then the school work, home work, and natural development of the child might be much better coordinated and correlated than they now are. There is danger in overemphasizing practical applications at the expense of knowledge. Each has its place. In good practice a state of freedom must rest on sound theory or clear seeing. Inspiration, aspiration, ideals, knowledge of principles, and skill in practical applications—all are necessary.

Miss Eva Reichardt, reporting for a special committee appointed to consider the question, "How can the country school as it now is

reach and help the women on the farms?" suggested a constructive plan.

The rural schools can be made to reach and help the women on the farm by (1) employing good teachers; (2) organization of clubs through the schools—school improvement, industrial and canning clubs; (3) by employing an itinerant teacher of domestic science, art, and manual training who could go into the schools and work with the children and also go into the homes, and direct neighborhood meetings of mothers for the study of home economics, home sanitation, home decoration, marketing of home products, etc.

In closing the conference the presiding officer called attention to the fact that this was the first time a special discussion of the condition and needs of country women had been arranged for a conference for education in the South. He believed it argued well for the future of rural women and for the advancement of the country in both material and spiritual things.

B. AN INDICTMENT OF THE RURAL SCHOOL.

By H. L. WHITFIELD,

President Mississippi Industrial Institute.

I. The present-day common school is inadequate for the training of women to meet present-day rural problems.

1. It does not teach health.
2. It does not give training for home life.
 - (a) It does not give preparation for parenthood;
 - (b) It does not give scientific training in preparation of food and clothing;
 - (c) It does not give training for maintenance of a sanitary and convenient home;
 - (d) It does not give training for the maintenance of a beautiful home, inside or outside;
 - (e) It does not give training in the out-of-door industries carried on in every rural home;
 - (f) It does not give training for the leisure in the home.

3. It does not give training for political citizenship.

II. The rural school as it is, and the tragic consequences to the women on the farms.

III. The common school can be made adequate for the training of women to meet present-day rural problems.

1. The addition of industrial branches to present curriculum will not make the school adequate.
2. It will take the complete reorganization of the school, both in regard to subject matter and to method, to make it adequate.

IV. The relation of the high schools and colleges to the improvement of rural life.

1. They must supply teachers.
2. They must supply supervisors.
3. They must supply extension workers.
4. They must supply right-spirited professional men.
5. They must become social centers themselves.

V. Social life in the country for women.

1. The common school can revive and uplift rural social life:
(a) By giving adequate preparation for spending leisure, both indoors and out; (b) by giving interest in civic problems and thus making it a basis of social gatherings; (c) by preparing for neighborhood industry and thus making it a basis of social gatherings; (d) by giving preparation for home improvement; (e) by making of itself a social center.

2. The country church can revive and uplift rural social life.

VI. The drudgery of the women on the farms can be relieved by:

1. Modern conveniences—water supply, laundry, fireless cooker, etc.
2. Scientific methods of cooking.
3. Interest in nature, in art, in music.
4. A satisfying social life.

VIII. A model country home—healthful, beautiful, convenient, productive, providing proper amusement, providing proper work, keeping in touch with the world.

All of these things constitute the central basis of social culture. Instead of a theoretical knowledge of the whole, there must be such *practice* that our young men and women will *automatically* make homes when they go out from our training. Our girls and boys must be practiced in home duties and civic problems—we want citizens and not a mere knowledge of citizenship. We want something that will not only relieve woman of the ceaseless drudgery of work, but something that will enlighten her mind, something that will teach her to associate with other women and make her familiar with the amenities of life which make for social happiness.

C. HOW TO RELIEVE THE DRUDGERY OF WOMEN ON THE FARM.

By JOE COOK,

President Mississippi Normal College, Hattiesburg, Miss.

Possibly nine-tenths of the drudgery on the farm is comprehended in the water supply, because water plays such an important part in housekeeping.

The getting of the water from the source of supply to the point of application requires more manual labor than any other item of house-keeping. The water for the kitchen has to be lifted from the well, carried to the kitchen, poured into a kettle, poured out of the kettle into the dishpan, and from the dishpan out of doors. This makes six times the water is handled; and a bucket of water containing 2 gallons, with the containing vessel, will weigh 20 pounds. When this is handled six times, the total lifting is 120 pounds. The cooking of 3 meals a day on a meager allowance of water will necessitate 10 buckets, which will make for cooking alone 1,200 pounds of lifting per day. When to this is added the water necessary for bathing, scrubbing, and the weekly wash, it will easily bring the lift per day up to a ton. And the lifting of a ton a day will take the elasticity out of a woman's step, the bloom out of her cheek, and the enjoyment from her soul.

If this daily lift can be eliminated, the largest item of drudgery will be gone. This can be done if the farmer can be brought to see that the farm is also the heir to modern invention. An isolated farm can be supplied with a system of waterworks for an outlay of about \$250: Pump, \$25; gasoline engine, \$40; tank, \$20; bathtub, \$20; commode, \$20; kitchen sink, \$4; basin, \$4; 500 feet of pipe, \$40; valves and installation, \$75. These figures are for first-class porcelain-lined fixtures; cheaper fixtures can be had. Such a system, if intelligently and compactly planned, will not only supply all of the household needs, but will supply practically all the farm needs besides.

D. HOW CAN THE COUNTRY SCHOOL AS IT NOW IS HELP THE WOMAN ON THE FARM?

By SUSIE V. POWELL, Jackson, Miss.

1. *The school must have something to offer her.*
 - (a) Lectures and demonstrations on home-science topics, including sanitation, hygiene, cooking, canning, sewing, home decoration, school lunches, sick nursing, care of children, special meetings, etc.
 - (b) Exhibits of such work.
 - (c) School garden, demonstration plat, cold frame.
2. *The women must be brought in touch with the schools.*
 - (a) Organization of community clubs, called "School improvement associations," "Industrial clubs," or by any other name.
 - (b) Regular meetings of these clubs at the school at least once a month.

- (c) Services of extension workers from the State department of education, the State colleges, and the county agricultural high schools.
- (d) Special classes for women in cooking and sewing and other subjects pertaining to home science.
- (e) Continuation of these meetings and demonstrations throughout vacation under the direction of the county supervisor of industrial clubs.
- (f) Teachers trained by the normal schools for community work as well as for the schoolroom work.

E. THE QUALIFICATIONS OF WOMAN IN THE HOME.

By Miss I. E. LORD,

Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.

There are thousands of details connected with the work of woman in the home. What is necessary for women who have this work to do? For teachers and for women in the homes?

1. Personality. Women who are teaching the science of right living need it more than anyone else.

2. High ideals of human life. Keep the great human problems in mind and teach these high ideals not only to the girls, but to the boys as well. The teacher or homemaker must be a *religious* woman—I do not speak in any denominational sense—a woman whose ideals of life consecrate her work.

3. Standards. She must have thought and worked to make her standards high.

4. Judgment—what is it, and how do we get it? Through observation and training; all teachers need judgment, not only for themselves, but they should train their pupils to cultivate good judgment, teach them to rely upon their judgment, and not to pass a hasty judgment on any subject.

5. A scientific attitude of mind. A mind that is alert, open, changing, and shifting until the best is reached.

6. Habits intelligently formed. There is a great waste of time and energy in the average kitchen because of a lack of scientific arrangement; the teacher and the woman in the home should strive for good habits in the arrangement of materials, as well as in the performance of other work; if the woman in the home gets good habits in dishwashing, she will not mind it half so much.

These are six essentials for the woman who is to make a success of her work as teacher of household arts or as homemaker; it may seem that a great deal is required, but the combination is not so hard to find as would appear at first sight.

There are thousands and tens of thousands of women in this country who need this teaching—they are waiting for it; they are waiting to know what education and science can give them, and it is the duty and privilege of educational conferences to see that they get it.

F. HOW CAN THE GIRLS' INDUSTRIAL CLUB WORK BE MADE A PART OF THE RURAL SCHOOL WORK?

By Miss S. V. POWELL, Jackson, Miss.

Industrial clubs for boys and girls are vitalizing courses of study and bringing the schools in touch with farm and home life. They recognize that—

1. What we want in the home we should place in the schools.
2. What we want in the schools should be embodied in the requirements of the teacher and in her training. Hence examination questions for teachers in geography, physiology, English, arithmetic, and agriculture should be based upon the club activities. Teachers are sure to study any subject that will help them secure a license.
3. Special instruction in club work should be given in the State normal colleges, at summer normal schools, and at teachers' institutes. Student-teacher tomato clubs may well be organized, plats cultivated, and instructions given in canning according to United States Government printed directions. These students would then be eligible as teachers or as country club directors.
4. The cooperation of the county superintendent and his teachers should be one of the requirements for organizing a club in any county.
5. Demonstrations in canning and club meetings at the schoolhouses are practical means for making the club an integral part of the school work. These meetings draw the whole community to the schoolhouse and make it a center of interest. They emphasize its value and its needs. When its needs are known, they are apt to be met.
6. There is need of correlation of the common-school studies with club activities as centers of interest. The measurement of plats find account keeping mean practical application of mensuration, percentage, and profit and loss. The written history of the crop means English composition, while the question of destruction of bacteria and spores is a lesson in bacteriology. The study of the effect of fruits and vegetables on the body is physiology, and the use of sealing irons, solder, and sal ammoniacs for sealing is practical chemistry. But best of all is the club spirit which this work engenders and which leads to good citizenship; therefore, it is civics.
7. An agent is needed to supervise the club work. This agent should not only understand scientific canning, but should also

realize its cultural and social possibilities, possess the capacity of leadership, and be able to secure the cooperation of the rural-school teachers.

G. HOW THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE AIDS THE HOME MAKER.

By C. F. LANGWORTHY,

Chief of Nutrition Investigations.

For some 20 years the Department of Agriculture has carried on nutrition investigations which have for their object the study of agricultural products, both animal and vegetable, as food. The composition and nutritive value of foods, their digestibility, ways of preparing them for the table, and many other problems have been studied and a large fund of information has been accumulated. This work is of especial interest to the housekeeper in the country and in town. This work also has a direct relation to food problems and home betterment. The preparation of food for her family, and all that it involves, is the greatest problem which the farmer's wife or other home maker has to face. Cooking and serving food and related household tasks take more than half of the time and energy of the average housewife, and the question is one which is never solved and set aside, for it arises anew every day. I say the average housekeeper, for it has been estimated that in three-fourths of our homes the members of the family do the housework.

No enterprise can be carried on to advantage unless it is based upon well-established principles and is systematized. The knowledge gained by experience and handed down from mother to daughter is, in the great majority of cases, the only guide which the housekeeper has in solving her food problems. Yet it is true that valuable as such empirical knowledge is, it is not sufficient for the requirements of the modern home. The progress which has been made in all that pertains to household work and home making has not kept pace with what has been accomplished in commercial and other enterprises. Laboratory work is needed to supplement empirical knowledge, and in the end it is the quickest and most economical way of securing facts.

In connection with the nutrition investigations, a systematic attempt has been made to study a wide variety of food problems, with a view to securing data which should result in a more intelligent use of our available food supply, more rational methods for the handling and storing of food in the home, for preparing and serving it, and for adapting the daily fare to the real demands of the body, as determined by age and other circumstances, and by the kind and amount of work performed. The results already obtained are numerous and

capable of general application and have shown clearly that it is possible to so apply them that the burdens incidental to the food problem in the home may be lightened and the daily fare made more attractive and better suited to the family needs. It has also been shown that, from a financial standpoint, considerable saving is often possible, for more intelligent management means less waste and wiser use of available resources.

The Department of Agriculture publishes for free distribution to all who ask for them a series of publications called "Farmers' Bulletins," which treat of a great variety of topics of interest to the farmer and the housekeeper. Twenty-five of these bulletins have been issued as a part of the nutrition investigations of the Office of Experiment Stations of the Department of Agriculture and contain information regarding the value of milk, eggs, bread and other cereal foods, vegetables, fruit, etc., and ways of preparing and using foods to make a well-balanced diet. The care of food in the home and other matters of home making are also considered.

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VII. PROBLEMS OF THE RURAL SCHOOLS.

A. PLANS OF STATE SUPERVISORS FOR RURAL SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT.

By L. J. HANIFAN,

State Supervisor of Rural Schools, West Virginia.

While the rural school problem is essentially the same throughout the South, a presentation of the plans of the State supervisors from the several States shows that in many respects these problems differ. Even in different sections of the same State they are in many cases very different. It is very significant that these supervisors, most of whom have been in their present positions the past three years, have now very different plans from those which they had at the beginning of their work. This of course is due to the fact that their experience in the field has been of incalculable value to them, revealing in a very striking way the fact that the only way to know what the rural situation is and how to meet this situation is by working in this comparatively new field of labor, by the rule of trial and error. These State plans embody the best experience of these several State supervisors during the past three years.

A brief digest of these several State plans may be stated as follows: First, in any scheme of rural school improvement the time element looms large, and therefore it is necessary to wage an unceasing campaign against local prejudices and common ignorance, thus creating better school sentiment among the citizenship of the State. Second, it is impossible to elevate the rural school very much above the general rural conditions of the community, and for this reason it is necessary to secure at the same time improved roads, better methods of farming, and better standards of living. Third, legislation consistent with active rural conditions is absolutely essential to the improvement of the rural schools. Fourth, it is the tendency to put the emphasis upon better supervision of the work of our rural schools, rather than the consolidation of schools as a means of this school improvement.

Supervisor T. J. Coates, of Kentucky, strikes the keynote of the rural situation when he declares:

When I began my work as State supervisor I set before myself six distinct lines of work, as follows:

1. To improve and redirect the content of the schools,
2. To make more efficient the teaching force of the State.

3. To improve the houses, equipment, and environment of the school.
4. To secure consolidation of schools and transportation of students when practicable.
5. To secure efficient supervision of the schools in the rural districts.
6. To help in securing the needed legislation.

That was two years ago. Many changes have taken place. The needed school legislation has been largely secured; but the other five lines of work still present themselves.

It will be noted that I present these as coordinate lines of improvement. At the beginning they so seemed to me, but to-day I look upon these five movements as one big fundamental movement and four subordinate movements.

To my mind the one big fundamental thing to do is to secure the right kind of supervision in every county.

Supervisor J. L. Bond, of Arkansas, plans to work out the rural problem in his State along the following lines: First, improving the teaching force; second, standardizing the work through better grading of the schools; third, securing county supervision for all counties; fourth, consolidation of schools; fifth, providing rural school libraries; sixth, improving rural school sanitation; seventh, increasing the school enrollment and attendance; eighth, securing better buildings and better school equipment; ninth, carrying on an unceasing personal campaign.

Supervisor Fred B. Frazier, of Tennessee, presents the following program for rural school improvement: First, raising the standard of the teaching force by requiring the high schools and State normal schools to make definite provision for training rural elementary teachers; second, securing modern school buildings through bond issues; third, improving and vitalizing the course of study; fourth, consolidating rural schools wherever possible; fifth, securing effective supervision of the rural schools; sixth, establishing rural high schools; seventh, improvement of the new compulsory attendance law; eighth, increasing the minimum school term; ninth, medical inspection; tenth, community cooperation in school activities.

Supervisor W. K. Tate, of South Carolina, makes his statement of plans unique by giving the approximate number of years in which he expects each plan to be made effective. For example, in his efforts to remove the State school system from politics, Mr. Tate estimates that the State board of education may be taken out of politics in 8 years and the office of State superintendent in 16 years. Other plans for South Carolina follow: The inaugurating of the county system, with county and district boards; fiscal affairs put on a millage basis; improving the teaching force and carrying on a campaign for better school sentiment among the citizenship.

The plans of these State supervisors will serve to indicate the nature and scope of the work outlined for the whole South.

B. RURAL SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

By ALBERT S. COOK, Baltimore County, Md.

1. Expert grade supervision is the most difficult as well as the most necessary aid to good teaching to be secured in any system of schools.

2. The expert rural school supervisor in charge of from 30 to 75 teachers, in addition to providing expert grade supervision for these schools, discovers and develops ability for leadership in his group of teachers, and also among citizens in the various communities he serves.

3. The expert rural school supervisor comes to know not only the individual teacher, but also the individual child, and the parents of the child in every community he serves.

4. He knows the economic and sociological conditions of the communities his schools serve better than any other person; therefore, all movements for rural betterment may and should come through his sympathetic cooperation, so that his constant presence in the immediate field will tend to sustain the interest aroused by the specialist on occasional visits.

5. The rural school, no matter how good or how inefficient, is the most vital institution in every rural community; it is, therefore, essential that all progressive movements for rural betterment should center about the rural school; this is possible in a system of schools only through expert rural school supervision.

6. Perfunctory, inefficient supervision of rural schools, by persons unqualified for the work, will possibly retard progress toward real, effective supervision; but any beginning toward supervision in a rural community is a step forward that should not be despised.

C. THE NEED OF A COUNTY UNIT.

By A. C. MONAHAN,
United States Bureau of Education.

We find four units of organization for the administration of the rural schools in the United States—the district, township, magisterial district, and county. The district, or the single district, as it is sometimes called, is the unit in 21 States and in parts of 4 others. The township is the unit in 10 States and in parts of 3 others. The magisterial district is the unit in 2. The county is the unit in 11 States and in part of 1 other.

On the whole, the county unit has most to commend it. The territory included in a county is usually small enough for a county board to keep in touch with the entire county, and it is large enough

for school districts to be arranged to the best advantage, both for the convenience of the pupils and for economy in management and support. It is the unit of supervision in the great majority of States. For efficiency the supervision and administration must be closely united. This is possible in the best way only when the unit of supervision and the unit of organization are identical. Another consideration in favor of the county unit is the question of support. The county is now the unit in most States for the assessment and collection of taxes, the building and care of roads and bridges, and maintenance of criminal and civil courts. To make it the unit for school purposes would do away with local district taxes for education, equalize the tax rate for the county, and distribute the cost of the support of the schools over the entire county, so that equal educational opportunities would prevail throughout the county. It must be clearly recognized that education is a matter of concern not only to the local district but also to the county, and to the State and Nation as well.

The ideal county system, judging from the most successful elements in various State systems where the county is the unit of organization, is probably as follows: The entire management and control of the schools of the county rests in the hands of a county board of education composed of 3, 6, or 9 members, one-third of whom are elected by the voters of the county at each annual or biennial election. This insures a continuing board. The county board should have the selection of a county superintendent of schools, who becomes the agent of the board in the management of school affairs. In the administration of the course of study, however, the county superintendent should be independent of the county board, as that is a professional task which requires the expert judgment of a professionally trained man. The county superintendent should be a man who has had a good general education, professional education in psychology and pedagogy, and successful experience as a teacher. In the administration of the course of study his only responsibility should be to the State department of education.

The county superintendent should select all teachers for the county, final election being a prerogative of the county board.

The county board of education should divide the county into school districts, for convenience in locating schools and assigning pupils to the various buildings. In each district there should be a trustee or a board of trustees, either appointed by the county board or elected by the people of the district. This local board would have no absolute power, but would have the immediate oversight of the local school and act in a supervisory capacity to the county board in all affairs dealing with their school.

School funds should be assessed and expended on the county as a unit. If the county contains independent city school districts, the school tax should be levied on all taxable property in the county including that in the city districts. The funds collected should be divided then between the county as a whole and the independent districts, probably on the basis of school population. The basis of division would depend upon local conditions in each State. The independent city districts might raise further funds for the support of their schools, if they so desire. The school districts in the county might also raise an additional sum for the support of their school, although in the ideal system the county funds should be sufficient for all school purposes. It is essential that the county board of education have power to expend the county funds wherever they are most needed, regardless of the portion of the funds coming from any particular school district.

The average county in the United States is too large in area for adequate supervision of its rural schools by the county superintendent, unless enough assistance is furnished him so that the schools may be visited and the teachers assisted in their work at regular, frequent periods. In the 18 larger cities in the United States in 1910 there was 1 supervisor for every 19 teachers, devoting half or more than half of his time to supervising. Such close supervision is probably not necessary in the country schools. The county superintendent, however, should have at least 1 assistant devoting his entire time to supervising the instructional work of the schools for every 35 or 40 teachers. Massachusetts and Oregon, both of which require all schools to be under expert supervision, have set the maximum as 50 country schools in each supervisory district; that is, 50 schools to 1 supervisor. In only a few cases, particularly in Massachusetts, do any supervisors have as many as 50.

D. THE EDUCATIONAL AWAKENING IN KENTUCKY.

By T. J. COATES,
State Supervisor of Rural Schools.

Kentucky has always had a small minority of highly educated and ambitious families, trained specifically for leadership. The great body of her citizens have been for years indifferently educated, while a large minority have been and are illiterates.

The census of 1910 revealed to us some startling facts. It showed that in 10 years our population had increased only a little over 6 per cent, that over 40 of our counties had lost people absolutely, and that over 80 had lost people if the towns and cities be counted out. Thousands of our people were leaving every year for other States. When we began to rub our eyes and look around, other things were

seen. We saw thousands of acres of the fairest blue-grass lands passing into the hands of foreign and native landlords, while the original owners moved to the cities, leaving their homes to be occupied by tenants. We saw thousands of acres transformed into pasture lands and the dwelling houses into stock barns. We beheld the negro population leaving the State or flocking to the cities, while no labor took their place. We saw thousands of our brightest boys and girls leaving the country for the city, leaving their parents in their old age alone to run the farm by their own efforts or by unreliable and unsatisfactory hired help. We saw hundreds of our farms being sold because of a lack of help to run them. We saw our mountain lands, rich in timber and coal, passing into the hands of foreign syndicates, while the original owners drifted away or became miners or tenants in the house of their fathers. We saw the mountain farms going to decay and the people dissatisfied and discouraged. We saw the rural church in many places at a standstill or actually losing ground. Hundreds of vacant churches dotted our hills and dales, while the congregations had scattered. On every hand signs of stagnation, discontent, and disintegration appeared to the discerning eye. But all eyes were not discerning. To many of our people everything seemed going on as well as usual. Evidently the first problem was to "wake up the natives."

In this condition of affairs, as I have above outlined, the school people saw, or thought they saw, that the great lack was right education, and a real crusade for education began and has continued to this day. I have time only to outline briefly some things we have done.

Two whirlwind campaigns for education were planned and carried on all over the State. Hundreds of speakers were enlisted and thousands of people attended the meetings. The facts were pointed out to the people and the remedy suggested.

The legislature came together and voted \$500,000 at one time for the State university and the two normal schools.

For years our system of schools had been based on the little local district. The law was changed making the county the unit of school government and taxation. Before this the amount of money levied locally was a negligible quantity. The law was changed in 1908; last year the amount levied locally was nearly \$2,000,000. Prior to this change in the law the schoolhouses were rotting down, roofs were off, decay was everywhere. Since 1908 the number of schoolhouses built has averaged one for every day in each of the years. These houses have cost all the way from \$500 each, in some of the poorer counties, to the splendid consolidated building at Maybick, costing \$32,000.

From the time the school system was organized until 1912 our teachers had been paid upon the basis of the number of children in the district. The legislature of 1912 changed the method, so that now teachers are paid upon the double basis of qualification and attendance. A compulsory school law also was passed. These two laws increased our average attendance last year over 50,000 pupils.

The legislature of 1912 gave the county boards the right to employ supervisors to assist the county superintendents in making efficient their schools. In June, 1912, when the law went into effect, there was not a supervisor in the State. By October 1, 45 counties out of 120 had availed themselves of the right to employ supervisors and had put 70 of these expert workers in the field. These supervisors have made good, and many other counties are employing them.

In 1911 we had two school fairs in the State; last year we had at least 50. Thousands of people attended these fairs.

In 1911 the attendance on the Kentucky Educational Association was under 1,000. Last year it was over 3,000, and this year it will reach 5,000.

The newspapers are pushing education. The commercial clubs are assisting with the movements. The Commercial Club of Louisville spent during the past year \$6,000 in publicity work in behalf of the schools.

The great problem now is how to wisely direct those movements so that we may show results, for in the long run only actual achievements count with the people.

E. TEACHING WOODLOT MANAGEMENT IN RURAL SCHOOLS.

By E. R. JACKSON,

Assistant in Agricultural Education, United States Department of Agriculture.

In schools where agriculture is taught—which should include all rural schools—some attention should be given to the subject of how to manage the farm woodlot.

The importance of forestry to the student of agriculture lies in its application *on the farm* in the management of the woodlot. Few schools of agriculture, however, devote any time to the study of woodlot management, although there is no part of the farm so much in need of better handling.

It ought not to take much argument to convince any farmer that a woodlot is a very serviceable thing to have on his farm, and that he really knows very little about how to make his trees more productive. Perhaps it has not even occurred to him that the yield of his woodlot may be increased by proper measures; or that his knowledge of how much his trees are worth is very unreliable. If teaching woodlot

management in the schools will make the future generation of farmers better informed on the subject it will certainly be worth while.

The Forest Service of the Department of Agriculture has been carrying on an experiment for the last two years in cooperation with the Baltimore County Agricultural High School, at Sparks, Md., for the purpose of bringing to the attention of teachers of agriculture the necessity of giving some attention to woodlot management; and for providing specific information, ultimately to be arranged in textbook form, for use in schools. For the past two years a woodlot course ~~has~~ been presented by the principal of the school in the spring to the members of the senior class, and the results have been most satisfactory. Last spring the class, consisting of 10 boys, in charge of the principal and accompanied by representatives of the Forest Service, spent 10 days camping in the woods near Parkton, Md. There the boys studied the elements of forestry and woodlot management from the typewritten manuscripts furnished them as texts and recited their lessons in the forenoons; while in the afternoons they engaged in field work, learning how to identify the trees, how to measure them and estimate their contents, how to select the proper trees for cutting, and how to determine the value of the products of the woodlot and market them to advantage.

Such a course as this ought to be included in every agricultural high school for the proper training of the future generations of farmers.

F. TEACHING AGRICULTURE IN THE ONE-ROOM RURAL SCHOOL.

By E. E. SELL, Athens, Ga.

The conference of agricultural teachers agreed that agriculture should be taught in the one-room rural school in the following ways:

(1) Largely by demonstrations, such as the testing of seeds, the Babcock milk test, the introduction of new crops in small plots on the school ground, fertilizing tests, etc.

(2) By encouraging the formation of boys' corn clubs and girls' tomato clubs.

(3) By the use of topics; that is, let the pupils work up one subject at a time from various sources.

G. DEMONSTRATION SCHOOLS.

By T. J. Coates,
State Supervisor of Rural Schools.

History of the movement.—The rural school is the farmer's school. The farmer is by nature conservative. For years he has been accustomed to farming in a certain way and to sending to a certain kind of

school. He has inherited both his methods of farming and his school from his fathers. What was good enough for them and for him is good enough for his children. He is skeptical about improving his farming and his school, and he is somewhat unfriendly to such improvement. There is only one way to make him a better farmer, and that is to show him. There is apparently only one way to make him friendly to an improved school system, and that is to show him. The demonstration farm and the demonstration school are parts of one idea; for farming can not be improved permanently except the schools be improved; and the schools can not be greatly improved unless the farming and marketing be bettered.

Acting upon such ideas as these, the State supervisor of rural schools of Kentucky undertook, during the fall of 1911, to start a movement for improving the schools in the State by selecting 11 counties in different parts of the State for the experiment. The counties were selected from two standards: First, the county must have a wide-awake superintendent; second, it must be located at some strategic point in the State; that is, it must be so located that, if the movement were worth while, it would spread of itself. The following counties were selected: Lawrence, Rowan, Mason, Madison, Whitley, Franklin, Warren, Nelson, Union, Grayson, and Graves.

The plan.—The plan was to make 10 schools in each county an improvement upon the ones to which the farmer had been accustomed. The superintendent selected the schools and notified the teachers. The State supervisor corresponded regularly with the teachers of those schools and set before them ways and means of improving the schools. Later, in company with the superintendent, he visited nearly every one of these demonstration schools. He found that over 75 per cent of the teachers had made substantial improvement along some useful lines. At scores of places the people met him in large numbers and testified their delight at the improvement of their schools. Two large lessons were learned by this experiment: (1) The majority of teachers were glad to improve their schools if they had some one to direct them; (2) the people are delighted with an improvement which they can see.

H. THE CONFERENCE AND THE RURAL SCHOOLS.

By P. P. CLAXTON,

United States Commissioner of Education.

Many important organizations and agencies owe their origin, directly or indirectly, to the Conference for Education in the South. Among these are the Southern Education Board, which has for 10 years carried on a most remarkable and successful campaign for the

improvement of the schools of the Southern States; the General Education Board, with its millions of endowment; the school improvement leagues, through which the women in the Southern States have done much valuable work for the general improvement of the schools, their grounds, and buildings; the campaign which the professors of secondary education in the State universities have carried on for the establishment, maintenance, and improvement of public high schools; the work of the rural-school supervisors; the farm-demonstration work; the boys' corn clubs and the girls' canning clubs; the Rockefeller Sanitary Commission for the eradication of the hookworm disease; and the beginnings of rural cooperation. The conference has for 10 years been one of the most important and vital factors in the life of the South.

Not all education comes from or through the schools. Yet the schools are and must remain the most important factor in education. In the South we need now to undertake definitely a few things and to work in hearty cooperation until they are attained:

- (1) An average school term of 180 days and a minimum of 160 days.
- (2) Good high schools within reach of all the boys and girls.
- (3) A better division of time between the elementary schools and the high schools, giving six years to each instead of seven or eight to the elementary schools and four years to the high schools. There are many reasons for this. Through such an arrangement much more might be accomplished in the 12 years.
- (4) The elevation and better standardization of the work of the colleges. Colleges should no longer attempt to do at a larger cost the work which the high schools can do better and at less cost.
- (5) Courses of study in the schools must be better adapted to the needs of life. All schools must of course prepare for life and citizenship. They should also prepare for making a living and for economic independence. Having determined what the man on the farm and the woman in the country home should know, the elements of this knowledge should be embodied in the course of study in the rural schools and be properly adjusted and correlated with other subjects.
- (6) Most important of all is the teacher. Nothing can be accomplished without competent teachers. The teacher makes the school. Without the teacher the machinery all runs to no purpose. The country schools, above all, must have teachers with good native ability, scholarship, professional preparation, and the skill that comes only from experience. We must demand a higher standard for a teacher's license. The principal of the country school should have not less than a good high-school education, with two years at least of normal school or college, and the teacher must remain in one place long enough to understand the community and its needs. Without

this, little of permanent value is possible. To bring this about, schools should be consolidated, good houses built, and as a part of the equipment of the schools, there should be provided a good home for the teacher, with from 20 to 40 acres of land. The home should not be costly, but comfortable and in good taste, such as any farmer with 40 or 50 acres of land may hope to build for himself if he is industrious and saving. The principal of the school should be required to live in the home and to cultivate the farm as a model farm for the community, with orchard and garden, poultry yard, and small dairy. The laws should require the State and National Departments of Agriculture, agricultural colleges, agricultural experiment stations, and farm-demonstration agents to help the teacher in every way possible. The use of the home and farm should be given the teacher in addition to his salary in money. Any man who ought to be permitted to serve as principal of a country school could make such home and farm worth to him twice as much as the average salary now paid to the principals of country schools in this section. The contract between the teacher and the school board should be for life or good behavior. In this way, and in this way only, may we hope to obtain and keep good teachers in the country schools. The additional cost would not be great. In the Southern States farm land is still cheap. If 30-year bonds were issued to pay for the land, the increase in its value by the end of the 30 years would be more than its total cost.

VIII. TRAINING AND CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

A. CHANGES IN THE NORMAL SCHOOL CURRICULUM.

By L. J. CORBLY, West Virginia.

The following statement represents the points agreed upon by the members of the conference of workers for the education of teachers in respect to the various suggested changes in the curriculum of the normal schools:

1. That the normal schools and normal colleges of the South should familiarize themselves with what the public schools of the State in which each is located are doing; what the needs, especially the more important and urgent needs, of the public schools are, as voiced by public opinion, local and general, especially the opinion of representative men and women in the rural and "small-town" sections.
2. That they should ascertain through their alumni, and through county and district school officials, wherein the graduates of normal schools are failing to meet local needs and wherein they are achieving unflouted success.
3. That there should be closer union of effort and a larger sympathy of purpose between the normal schools and the community into which normal-school graduates go to teach, and that this cooperation be brought about by making the study of local social and economic conditions in each county a feature of normal-school training.
4. That the courses of study in each State normal school must be constructed to meet the conditions which that particular school is confronted with, thus requiring a large measure of flexibility in individual courses and a liberal amount of variation in each school from old-time standards and from any modern tendency toward uniformity in this respect.
5. That the so-called professional subjects in our normal schools, especially such as psychology and history of education, should be made more vital; that is to say, should become more distinctly "educational" in the case of "psychology" and more modern and local in the case of the "history of education."
6. That there should be a course of study, or at least such flexibility and adaptation of present courses, as will give those who are to teach in rural schools such subjects and such training and practice as will fit them for their particular work, to which end such normal schools as are called upon to prepare teachers for rural schools should have as a feature of that special training a rural school near the normal school—a distinctively rural "all-grade" school—for observation and for practice.
7. That every normal school engaged in whole or in part in the preparation of teachers for our rural schools should have land and equipment for doing illustrative farming, gardening, fruit growing, etc., one or all of these according as local needs may call for them; and that the normal graduate for rural schools should be equipped for cooperative, if not initiative, effort in the agricultural interests of the community into which he goes to teach.
8. That as soon as possible that kind of work known as review work for those who go to the normal school with the sole purpose of preparing for passing the required State examination for the certifying of teachers should be dispensed with, because in the main it must be considered a hindrance rather than a help to genuine educational progress.

9. That public-school subjects should be taught with reference to local needs, whether these be arithmetic, geography, history, English, or what, as far as possible consistent with an intelligent grasp of the subject per se—"vitalized," as one speaker insisted.

B. TRAINING RURAL TEACHERS BY MEANS OF HIGH SCHOOLS.

By JOSEPH S. STEWART, Athens, Ga.

In nine Southern States, Virginia to Mississippi, we have 60,766 white rural teachers. Sixty-seven per cent are females; the average age is 25 years; the average monthly salary is \$43; and the average number of months taught the previous year was five and one-half. Sixty per cent, or 36,000, were educated in rural schools; 46 per cent, or 28,000, had attended some high school; 23 per cent had attended a normal; and 8 per cent were graduates of a college. It is safe to say that one-fifth, in some States one-fourth, drop out each year. This gives us from 12,000 to 15,000 teachers to be supplied in nine States each year, or from 800 to 2,000 for a State.

It is conceded that the towns will get their teachers from the normal schools and that the cities will draw from the normals or will provide them from their own training classes. Clearly the towns and the cities get most of the normal graduates, and what are left make not more than one-eighth of the total needed for the rural schools, or say 2,000 a year for these nine States. This is a very liberal estimate for the annual normal-school supply to the rural schools in these States.

There are 13 States attempting rural training in connection with high schools, according to the Bureau of Education. These 13 States give courses in 627 high schools to 8,400 pupils, turning out in 1911-12 4,860 graduates from the training classes. Nebraska and New York supplied half of these pupils and graduates and one-third of the schools. It cost New York \$65,000 to turn out 1,156 teachers. One-seventh of the New York elementary teachers were trained in the high-school training classes.

It cost Nebraska \$38,000 to graduate 1,385 teachers. Arkansas in the first year of the course spent \$14,000, graduated 34, and enrolled 320. Minnesota spent \$63,000 and graduated 600. Virginia spent \$16,000 and graduated 211. In all these 13 States, except North Carolina and Wisconsin, the State appropriates from \$350 to \$1,500 for each training department.

In Michigan, New York, and Minnesota the training class is in charge of a special teacher, who devotes the entire time to the class. The class is separate and distinct from the regular high-school classes, and in many cases, in New York the majority, the pupils are graduates of the four-year high school. In these States the time it spent in

the subject matter of the rural school and the methods of teaching the same, with observation or practice teaching in the grades. There is no attempt to include the high-school subjects.

In the other 10 States the training classes are a part of the high school. Those who elect this course devote, during the last two years of the high school, about one-third to one-fourth of the pupil's time to professional work, the other to the usual high-school subjects. In some States a special teacher must be provided; in others the superintendent or approved high-school teacher gives the professional courses.

The study of high-school subjects with a few recitations in psychology, history of education, and a textbook course in methods in a town high school will not give the specific training needed for the teachers in the rural schools. As Mr. Aiton, of Minnesota, well says:

'We have tried for years to train the future teachers of little children in the rural schools by giving them a digest of the senior high-school subjects, and are just beginning to learn that the teachers of young children, particularly rural children, should study, and study intensely, the subject matter of the elementary school. It is true that sound knowledge of high-school subjects may be brought to bear in primary questions, but the proper subject matter to be studied in the training school for rural teachers is the subject matter that is to be taught in the rural schools.'

If the town school has not broadened its area to take in the country and country life, the environment may not be wholesome for the training of rural teachers. The young town girl often finds herself ill adapted to the conditions of country life; the home where she boards, the long walk to school, the ungraded school, the comparative isolation, the lack of amusements familiar in town, the lack of conveniences—all are new to her, and too often she fails to identify herself with the new environment. Her training has not fitted her for the rural school and as a leader in rural life. She longs for the town and the town life in which she has been bred.

Where there are agricultural high schools in a county or district, these can easily be made to provide the necessary review of the subject matter of the rural school, practice in teaching, and give that training in the home and farm activities that will well fit the graduate for a rural school position. In every case the high school selected should have that environment and spirit, as well as equipment, that will conduce to a wholesome regard for rural life.

The following statement of principles was adopted by the conference of high-school inspectors:

It is the belief of the majority of the conference of high-school inspectors that if specific teacher training for rural teachers is to be undertaken by the high schools of the South, it should be done somewhat under the following conditions:

First. It should be done in a distinct class, following the high-school course, and open to pupils of sufficient age and experience after the second year of high-school training.

Second. It should be under the immediate charge of an expert elementary teacher and the principal.

Third. The year's work should cover the subject matter of the rural school and the State syllabus.

Fourth. Observation and practice should be given in the grades and neighboring rural schools, with criticism, bringing in the principles of education, laws of psychology, methods and management in the doing, with supplementary texts.

Fifth. The high-school equipment in laboratories, vocational departments, library, or other equipment should be utilized fully as needed.

Sixth. Cooperation with the boys' and girls' clubs in agriculture and domestic science through the supervisors of these should be secured, developing capacity for outdoor life and outdoor studies.

Seventh. The State should appropriate additional funds or set aside from the present school funds at least \$500 a school for a limited number of training classes in different sections of the State, the town and county together duplicating the State appropriation, and providing the necessary accommodations.

Eighth. These departments must be supervised by the State and meet definite requirements to receive the appropriation.

Ninth. Graduates of the training classes are to be given elementary certificates good for two years, and renewable under certain conditions.

Tenth. Teachers in the field may attend the classes for any period of the year when not engaged in teaching, and elect additional work in the high school.

C. SOME GENERAL PRINCIPLES WITH REGARD TO CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS.

By T. J. WOOFTER,
University of Georgia.

Certification should be only by qualified members of the profession. In more primeval stages, laymen gave the examinations. This would not now be tolerated in medicine, law, pharmacy, engineering, nor the Army and Navy; and it should not be tolerated in education.

Premium should be put upon professional preparation. This means that, for the present, in the South, two types of certificates are necessary: (1) For those entering the work with the minimum of preparation (and we must use many such), nonprofessional licenses must be provided. These should be of lower grade, shorter term, more local use, and smaller salary. Local authorities may grant these, though the questions should generally be prepared by State authorities. (2) For those who make professional preparation, professional certificates should be provided. These should be characterized by longer terms, State-wide use, and larger salaries. State authorities should grant these, and proper recognition should be given professional preparation in the established institutions for this professional preparation.

Cities, towns, and local systems should be allowed to supplement professional certificates by tests based on further professional scholarship, experience, and the specialty for which the teacher is wanted.

Specialization should be provided for. Elementary, secondary, manual art, and vocational fields will call for their own special preparation. Especial stress should be laid upon supervision, which should be authorized by proper certificate of professional grade.

D. THE CERTIFICATION OF TEACHERS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

By E. E. RALL,
University of Tennessee.

I. Defects and criticisms of the present systems:

- (1) Lack of centralized system.
- (2) Insufficient recognition of professional training received in normal school and college.
- (3) Too much reliance on examinations, which do not really test fitness to teach, with low standards; no real test of professional ability; no adequate test of scholarship; examiners inefficient, encouraging mere word cram and cramming summer schools; too little stimulus to genuine education and scholarship.
- (4) Failure to provide different kinds of certificates for different kinds of teaching.
- (5) Requirements and standards too low all along the line, with too many low-grade certificates capable of being secured and then kept alive by reading prescribed books or attending some summer school or institute.
- (6) Too many kinds of certificates, and system too complicated.
- (7) Too liberal recognition of junior colleges and schools that do not give professional training.
- (8) "The crying need of the South is more good State normal schools, to take these from under political pressure, and to require certificates from these schools."

II. Results of letter of inquiry.

- (1) Should there be a distinction between elementary and high-school certificates? Practically all answered in the affirmative.
- (2) Should graduates of State normal schools, State universities, and other schools of equal rank be entitled to certificates? All, except two replied in the affirmative.
- (3) Is inter-State recognition practicable? Some 23 replies indicate a favorable attitude. Two thought it was hardly practicable, if at all.

III. A desirable and practicable system of certification for the Southern States. Principles or canons to which any adequate system must conform:

- (1) Only one thing should determine the issuance of a teacher's certificate—the candidate's proved qualifications for the kind of teaching which the certificate allows.

24485 15-3

(2) Therefore the first and fundamental problem in the certification of teachers is adequate means of determining a candidate's qualifications. These means are of three kinds: (1) Examinations, (2) credentials from educational institutions, (3) evidences of successful experience.

(3) Successful experience only is finally decisive as evidence of teaching ability. Until this is proved, therefore, no certificate should be renewed or made permanent.

(4) Examinations are the least efficient, but for the present, at least, a necessary means of determining candidates' qualifications.

(5) Credentials from educational institutions should become more and more the preferred and general method of determining fitness to teach. These credentials should evidence adequate training in two directions: (a) General and special academic scholarship; (b) professional study, as indicated under the following two points:

(6) Adequate preparation for teaching demands an academic or scholastic proficiency considerably in advance of that of any pupil to be taught.

(7) Adequate preparation for teaching demands thorough professional training. A conservative requirement: (a) High-school graduation, with some professional study included or added, for teachers in rural and elementary schools; (b) two or three years of normal-school training (i.e., beyond high-school grades) or college training (the latter always to include adequate professional courses), for teachers in two or three year high schools or junior high schools; (c) four years of normal school and college training (again beyond the high school), or four years of university training with adequate professional courses included, for teachers in first-class, fully accredited high schools.

(8) Professional training is essential for proper preparation of high-school teachers as well as elementary.

(9) Different kinds of teaching positions require different kinds of preparation and qualifications. Therefore, there should be different types or classes of certificates with different requirements. Four classes would seem sufficient: (a) Elementary; (b) high school; (c) supervisory; (d) special.

(10) Tenure or duration of certificate should first be limited in every instance, and then for the highest grade in each class or type made permanent or practically so.

(11) The practical administration of certification should be characterized by (a) competence on part of administrators; (b) absolute justice and impartiality in execution; (c) uniformity and economy in operation. This means State certification with (a) a State board properly constituted; (b) expert preparation, impartial supervision, and expert grading of all examinations; (c) uniform, that is, identical examinations and requirements throughout the State; (d) fewer examinations.

IX. HIGH SCHOOLS IN THE SOUTH.

A. WHAT HAS BEEN DONE IN ALABAMA.

By JAMES S. THOMAS,

University of Alabama.

The public high school had no place in the so-called educational system of Alabama until 1907, when the legislature provided for the establishment of a county high school in each of the 67 counties, whenever the people of any county signified their willingness to donate a suitable school site of not less than 5 acres and to construct a building costing not less than \$5,000. The State agreed to give \$2,000 annually for the support of each such school established. (This amount has since been increased to \$3,000.)

In 1907 there were in the State some 30 or 40 institutions calling themselves colleges. The entrance requirements to these institutions, practically all of which were empowered to grant A. B. and B. S. degrees, ranged from the alphabet to the two years of quasi high-school work required by the University of Alabama, which stood alone. The high school, as such, was not at all recognized by the higher institutions of learning; consequently, so far as the colleges were concerned, it had no reason for existence.

The four normals in the State rated themselves as colleges and granted degrees for the completion of what might have been termed a good four-year high-school course.

In April, 1908, a conference of representatives of the various Alabama colleges was held at Montgomery. Through maps and charts Prof. Doster, of the University of Alabama, demonstrated to the gentlemen present, who were engaged in conducting colleges in Alabama, that there was not a single standard college in the State.

He emphasized the fact that, before Alabama college degrees could be enhanced in value and put on a par with those granted by reputable institutions in other parts of the country, the entrance requirements must be raised, and in order to raise the standards of entrance to 14 units, four-year high schools must be established and fostered.

The results of this conference were:

1. The organization of the Alabama Association of Colleges, composed of the University of Alabama, Howard College, Birmingham College, Judson, Woman's College, and Athens College. This organi-

zation is still in existence and has exerted a powerful influence in elevating educational standards throughout the State.

2. A four-year course of study was adopted instead of a three-year course, as many of the low-grade institutions wished. The adoption of a four-year course for the county high schools exerted a powerful influence upon the city and town high schools. These schools lengthened their courses to four years.

3. The colleges belonging to the association, by soon raising their entrance requirements to 14 units, left the high schools free to develop without college competition.

Five years ago we had 50 high schools, as follows: 5 city high schools with courses of study 4 years in length; 9 district agricultural schools and 20 town high schools with courses of 3 years in length; 16 private high schools with courses of varying lengths.

To-day we have 132 schools doing secondary work. Courses of study 4 years in length are given in 38 city high schools, 9 district agricultural schools, 52 county high schools, 17 private high schools, and 2 normal schools, while courses of study 3 years in length are given in 14 town high schools.

When the first professor of secondary education went to the University of Alabama six years ago, the high schools of the State graduated less than 200 students. This session the high schools of Alabama will graduate more than 1,500.

B. THE COMMISSION ON ACCREDITED SCHOOLS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

By N. W. WALKER, Chapel Hill, N. C.,
Secretary of the Commission.

The commission on accredited schools of the Southern States was created by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States at its annual meeting in Tuscaloosa, Ala., in November, 1911. The commission, composed at first of two members from each State, met in Nashville, Tenn., and organized in April, 1912.

The commission is charged with preparing a "Southern list of accredited schools" for the use of the colleges of the South and of other sections, and furthermore to stimulate and aid the high schools to reach higher standards of scholarship and better conditions for teachers and pupils. It hopes that by throwing the weight of the whole South for certain standards of efficiency all the schools will be benefited. The standards of accrediting as they now stand are as follows:

(e) No school shall be accredited which does not require for graduation the completion of a four-year high school course of study embracing 14 units as defined by this association. A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary

school constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work. More than 20 periods per week should be discouraged.

(b) The minimum scholastic attainment of three-fourths of all secondary school teachers of academic subjects in any accredited school on the southern list shall be equivalent to graduation from a college belonging to the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States, or a college approved by the commission. It is strongly advised that this attainment include, or be supplemented by, special study of the content and pedagogy of the subject taught.

(c) The number of daily periods of class instruction given by any teacher should not exceed five per day; and the commission will scrutinize with extreme care any school in which instructors teach as many as six daily periods.

(d) The laboratory and library facilities shall be adequate for the needs of instruction in the courses taught.

(e) The location and construction of the buildings, the lighting, heating, and ventilation of the rooms, the nature of the lavatories, corridors, water supply, school furniture, apparatus, and methods of cleaning shall be such as to insure hygienic conditions for both pupils and teachers.

(f) The efficiency of instruction, the acquired habits of thought and speech, the general intellectual and moral tone of a school are paramount factors and, therefore, only schools which rank well in these particulars, as evidenced by rigid, thorough-going, sympathetic inspection, shall be considered eligible for the list.

(g) The commission will decline to consider any school whose teaching force consists of fewer than three teachers of academic subjects giving their full time to high-school instruction. When local conditions warrant the introduction of the so-called vocational subjects, such as agriculture, manual training, household arts, and commercial subjects, the commission will hold that a sufficient number of teachers must be added to provide adequately for such instruction.

(h) No school shall be considered unless the regular annual blank furnished for the purpose shall have been filled out and placed on file with the inspector. In case of schools having 12 or more teachers a complete report on teachers once in three years will be sufficient, but full data relative to changes must be presented annually.

(i) All schools whose records show an excessive number of pupils per teacher, as based on the average number belonging, even though they may technically meet all other requirements, will be rejected. The association recognizes 30 as maximum.

(j) The time for which schools are accredited shall be limited to one year, dating from the time of the adoption of the list by the association. In every case the character of the work done by a school must be the determining factor in accrediting. By personal visits of the inspectors, by detailed reports from the principals, and by the records made by the students in college, the character of a school's work shall be, from time to time, determined. A school shall be removed from the accredited list for failure to maintain the above standards.

The commission decided at Spartanburg, S. C., to hold an adjourned session in Richmond, Va., in April, 1913, in connection with the Conference for Education in the South. At this time it was the purpose of the commission to prepare for publication its first list of accredited schools. At the Richmond meeting 10 of the 13 States were represented. After further discussion of the tentative standards and the rules, it was apparent that further amendment or adaptation would probably be necessary, and so it was decided that no list should be published until the regular annual meeting of the commission in the fall of 1913. The commission went ahead, how-

ever, with the preparation of the list. From the 10 States represented—Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Kentucky, Tennessee, and Texas—135 schools were found to be acceptable and were duly accredited. Arkansas and West Virginia sent in their lists accepted by the committees of these States, but in the absence of the representatives the commission decided to take no action on these lists until the regular meeting.

The commission is working persistently, but cautiously, at the task which has been committed to it. It hopes and believes that the work it is doing will do much toward advancing the standards and promoting generally the cause of secondary education in the Southern States.

X. COLLEGE EXTENSION WORK.

Report by E. D. SANDERSON,
University of West Virginia.

At the suggestion of President Murphree, the conference of rural school supervision was invited to meet with the college conference for the purpose of discussing what extension work of the colleges would in their judgment be of the most value.

W. K. Tate, rural school supervisor of South Carolina, opened the discussion with the following suggestions:

1. In the Province of Ontario, Prof. McCrady, provincial director of agricultural education, conducts a summer training course of four weeks for elementary teachers in agriculture and nature study. Upon the completion of this course a certificate of qualification is issued. A provincial law gives each teacher who has a certificate and who maintains a school garden \$30 per year, and the school board maintaining a school with such a teacher and garden \$30 per year. Prof. McCrady inspects the work of these schools. This might be adapted to our States by having such a supervisor of agricultural education in connection with the State department of education and the State university or agricultural college.
2. The State entomologist of Minnesota has issued a very attractive color chart of the common birds and insects of Minnesota showing their relation to agriculture. This would prove to be an incentive to study bird and insect life.
3. School bulletins or leaflets, prepared for elementary teachers and their pupils, on agriculture, nature study, and home economics, such as are issued by Cornell University, may be of great value.
4. The University of South Carolina has published a bulletin on school athletics for elementary schools and high schools. Clemson College has issued a bulletin on home gardening, special winter gardening, and another on literary and debating societies. These have been very helpful.
5. The mechanical department of a university may issue definite plans, blue prints, etc., for manual training in mechanical work. This is work which the State department of education can not do. Other departments of State universities and agricultural colleges can be of similar service in cooperation with the State department of education.

Mr. J. L. Bond, supervisor of rural schools for Arkansas, urged that a rural school survey be made to secure information on what training

teachers have had, and how many have had normal-school training. He also urged a special course for rural teachers. Mr. George M. Lynch, supervisor of rural schools of Florida, urged that the colleges cease publishing matter criticizing rural conditions with which they are not familiar, inasmuch as he thought that many of the conditions did not exist as described. He urged that study be made of the fundamental causes of present conditions of country life and that college and university men get in touch with rural school officials. He suggested arranging a council of the faculty and calling in 8 or 10 of the leading county superintendents and having one or two conferences for discussing rural conditions. He deprecated the universities sending specialists to talk to country people in technical language.

Miss C. S. Parrish, supervisor of the rural schools, Georgia, urged that the colleges should help in home economics extension work the same as in agriculture. She suggested that a four weeks' school be held in a dozen different sections of a State the size of Georgia for training teachers in agriculture and home economics. The universities and normal schools should send out instructors for these schools. She thought that supervisors of secondary education were laying too much emphasis on the high schools preparing their students with 14 units, necessary for college entrance. She stated that the worst county in Georgia from an educational standpoint had the old type of education. She urged that a new attitude was needed on the part of school people toward practical education for rural life.

State Supt. Baker, of Alabama, further discussed the overemphasis of high schools on college entrance units. He believes that 10 units should be academic subjects and 4 units vocational. He stated that high schools had had great difficulty in doing good vocational work and being up to the "standards." He urged the organization of clubs in higher institutions for studying social and educational conditions in the counties.

Mr. J. Phil. Campbell, in charge of boys' corn club work at the Georgia Agricultural College, stated that the university should make plans for extension work throughout the State. He urged that cooking lessons for the girls be fully outlined, so that they would have one for each day which would be carried on at home, enlisting the interest and assistance of the mother. The products of their cooking, or samples of them, should be brought to school and discussed or reported on. The teachers should get the mothers together and discuss the work with them. In this way the rural teacher would be a leader, not only in the direction of the children, but of their parents. He urged that the influence of business men be enlisted in agricultural extension work by showing them its economic import-

ance. He urged the need of getting bankers and merchants to tell the farmers that they must follow up the instructions of the county agents. He believed that the county demonstration agent should be an instructor for the country school teachers and school officials of his county, and that there should be a woman for similar work in home economics, both of whom should be connected with the office of the county superintendent of schools.

Miss Ruth Roudebush, of the Industrial Institute and College, Columbus, Miss., told how this institution for girls was training the students for leadership in country life. The girls are organized in county clubs for studying the conditions in their own counties. A model home is kept by the girls under the supervision of the domestic-science leader.

President S. P. Brooks, Baylor University, Waco, Tex., stated that the attitude of the denominational colleges would have much to do with modernizing education. He hoped that the attitude of industrial education would not shatter all the images of those who advocated the older forms of education, but on the other hand he felt that he favored admitting work in home economics to a course leading to an "arts" degree for women. He urged the importance of denominational colleges supporting the extension work of State-supported institutions and heartily cooperating with them, particularly in developing better and truer ideals of country life among its own students and its constituents.

Miss H. Gardiner, of Lawrenceville, Va., called attention to the fact that in the schools of Great Britain children are not allowed to go beyond the fifth grade without knowing how to clothe and feed a baby. She stated that many country mothers were exceedingly ignorant in this respect, and urged that no matter of greater importance could be taught in the schools.

The following report of the special committee on extension work was adopted:

Extension work should include every form of effort by institutions of higher learning to confer their benefits upon the great mass of people who are not enrolled as students within their walls.

Universities, colleges, and normal schools should all engage in such work so far as their resources will permit. Tax-supported institutions are under peculiar obligations to carry on extension work, and the provisions made for their support should include liberal allowances for it.

Unity in extension work is to be desired and indeed is necessary for any degree of success. To that end we recommend:

That the State department of education and the land-grant college in each State agree upon a cooperative system of extension work to which all other agencies engaging in such work should conform.

Public elementary schools afford probably the best opportunity for most of the lines of extension work, and universities, colleges, and normal schools should send at their

own expense trained and capable men and women to institutes and other gatherings of teachers and school patrons wherever possible, not merely for the purpose of trying to obtain students, but for the larger and better purpose of unselfish helpfulness to the people.

Vocational training, especially in the subjects of agriculture and home making, is the most available point of contact for the higher institutions and the elementary schools and people. Owing to the great lack of teachers able to do vocational work we believe that the agencies in charge of the extension work should make special provisions for the training of the teachers now in the field in this work.

In order to stimulate necessary local interest in vocational training, we believe that such training, including especially agriculture and home making, should be recognized among the units accepted for admission to college.

We believe that good roads and cooperative marketing of farm products are of such vital importance at this time that State universities and land-grant colleges should establish the necessary departments to furnish experts to aid in the building of better roads and in the organization of the farmers into cooperative associations.

We therefore recommend the appointment of a committee to investigate fully the whole subject of extension work, and present an outline of a complete system of extension work for the communities of the South for consideration at the next meeting of this conference.

XI. THE TREND IN NEGRO EDUCATION.

By W. E. AERY,
Hampton Institute, Hampton, Va.

The two negro conferences on the education of the negro which were held in connection with the Richmond conference were attended by white school officials, including superintendents of public instruction, State supervisors of industrial and elementary schools, school principals, members of educational boards, workers in the United States Bureau of Education, as well as by colored school officers.

The conferences were presided over by Dr. James Hardy Dillard, president of the Negro Rural School Fund Board. The most striking address during the first conference, aside from that of Dr. Dillard, was made by Virginia E. Randolph, of Henrico County, Va., who began in 1908 her special task as a supervising industrial teacher, working under the direction of Jackson E. Davis, who is now the State supervisor of elementary schools of Virginia.

Virginia E. Randolph outlined the story of her work for negro children in rural districts from 1894 to the present. It has always been her policy to induce the children who come under her influence to have clean dresses, clean hands, and a tidy appearance. She has always had the cooperation of her own people as well as the help and support of the best white people. In 1908, through some assistance from the Jeanes Fund, she was able to visit the negro schools in Henrico County, Va., and help the local teachers organize patrons' leagues, school improvement clubs among the boys and girls, and to make the school a social center seven days in the week.

Virginia Randolph has more and more completely organized this work, until now she is reaching practically all the negro schools in Henrico and Alexandria Counties, Va. She is helping the local teachers in the work of making the schools attractive and clean inside and outside. She and her associates have shown the negroes of Virginia that labor can be dignified, that gardens are possible all the year around, that cooking and sewing can be made interesting, that in proportion as the negro schools prepare boys and girls for useful and righteous living they win the respect and support of the best white people.

Her simple talk was received with enthusiasm by white school men. It was amply corroborated by Mr. Jackson Davis and other school officers of Virginia.

Supt. Smith, of Kent County, Md.; Supt. Arthur D. Wright, of Henrico County, Va.; President C. F. Meserve, of Shaw University, Raleigh; Dr. George P. Phenix, vice principal of Hampton Institute; Jackson Davis, of Richmond; Dr. P. P. Claxton, of Washington, D. C., were some of the speakers at the first conference.

Commissioner Claxton pointed out that the improvement of negro rural schools is simply one phase of the pressing problem of country-life improvement. He declared that the only solution for the country-school problem—white or colored—is the teacher. He outlined his plan for school consolidation, which includes the building, at the consolidated school, a home for the teacher and the laying out of a garden plat which will become a demonstration center for the school community.

At the second conference Dr. Dillard outlined the conditions under which the so-called negro universities in the South carry on their work. He quoted freely from the "Report on Negro Universities in the South," prepared by W. T. B. Williams, field agent of the John F. Slater Fund. He showed that the work done by these universities covers every phase of education from the lowest elementary school grade up to good college work and to efficient instruction in reputable professional schools.

Referring to the course of study offered by the negro universities, Dr. Dillard pointed out the handicaps under which these negro schools have been working—slender means, lack of teachers, poor equipment. He referred also to the duplication of work which is due to the grouping of these universities in centers where there are already a number of struggling negro institutions. He declared, however, that, with all their shortcomings and misrepresentations, these negro universities have done a great deal for negro youth and have supplied a number of the best teachers for colored schools.

Both meetings were characterized by frank discussion of the best methods of helping the negro boys and girls to better living, better farming, and better home making through the medium of the common school. Northerners, southerners, white men and black men, came together on the platform of better schools for a better South.

XII. HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

A. IMPROVEMENT IN STANDARDS OF SOUTHERN COLLEGES SINCE 1900.

By ELIZABETH AVERY COLTON,
Meredith College, Raleigh, N. C.

In 1900, including Maryland but omitting the District of Columbia and Missouri, only 3 southern colleges—Johns Hopkins, Goucher, and Vanderbilt—had standard requirements for entrance. By September, 1906, only 5 others—Baylor University, Central University (Kentucky), Randolph-Macon Woman's College, the University of Chattanooga, and the University of Oklahoma—announced the requirement of 14 or 15 entrance units. By September, 1912, however, at least 160 southern colleges and universities *announced* standard admission requirements. This increase since 1906—more than 30 time greater than during the preceding six years—leads one to conclude that the Carnegie Foundation is largely responsible for this advance in admission announcements; for, in October, 1906, the Foundation issued its first annual report, which stated that "in very few instances had institutions in the South, even those of age and high standing, enforced entrance requirements which made any sharp distinction between the high school and the college." This statement was followed by some rather startling unit estimates comparing the entrance requirements of some of our best southern universities with those in other sections; and in 1907 the Foundation issued a bulletin showing the entrance requirements of all State universities. By 1908, therefore, marked progress toward unity in college requirements for admission had been made in the South.

It is of interest to note the advance in admission requirements demanded by the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the Southern States. In 1900 the association *required* the equivalent of only 10 entrance units for classical students and only 5½ units for students who presented no Latin or Greek; since 1910, however, the association has required 14 units for unconditioned entrance to any degree course. As the association has ever since its organization demanded either the abolishing of preparatory classes or the rigid separation of college and preparatory students, it is safe to assume that the increased admission requirements of the 11 institutions belonging to the association in 1901—the Universities of Alabama,

Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, and West Virginia, Trinity College, the University of the South, Vanderbilt, and Washington and Lee University—really represent a corresponding improvement in their respective degrees. Since 1901, 15 other colleges and universities have been admitted to membership in the association, as follows: Randolph-Macon Woman's College (1902), Goucher (1903), Tulane University (1903), University of Virginia and Randolph-Macon College (1904), Central University (1905), Agnes Scott College (1907), University of Georgia (1909), Richmond College (1910), Mercer and Southwestern Presbyterian University (1911), Converse College (1912), Millsaps College (1912), and Southern University (1912). Furthermore, there can be no doubt that these institutions have improved the quality as well as the quantity of their college work by the greater amount of preparation demanded for entrance.

In the following cases the increase in admission requirements has been particularly notable: Central University raised its admission requirements for entrance to the A. B. course from 6.7 units in 1900 to 14 in 1906; Converse College, from admission requirements in 1900 described by President Pell as "decidedly vague and elastic," to 14 units in 1910; Mercer, from 7.5 units in 1900 to 14 before 1912; Millsaps, from 6.5 units in 1900 to 14 in 1911; Randolph-Macon (men), from 6 units in 1900 to 14 in 1907; Randolph-Macon Woman's College, from 6 or 8 units in 1900 to 14.5 units before 1906; Richmond College, from 3 or 4 units in 1900 to 14 before 1912; Southern University, from 8 units in 1900 to 14 in 1910; the University of Virginia, from approximately 6 units in 1904 to 14 in 1909; and Washington and Lee, from a possible minimum of 4 or 5 units in 1900 to 14 in 1908.

The increase in admission requirements of all these colleges indicates a corresponding increase in the amount of college work represented by their respective degrees. In 1904, when freshmen who entered in 1900 should have graduated, the A. B. degree of only Goucher and Vanderbilt represented four full years of college work; in 1913, however, the graduates of 15 other institutions will presumably have completed four years of work above standard college entrance requirements; and in 1914, with one exception, the graduates of each of the 26 colleges and universities will, according to announcements, have completed four years of college work. Of course, the quality of college work still varies with the institution, but whether the four years of college work of all the institutions in the southern college association is of equal standing or not, it must at least be conceded that four years of college work of *any* quality in 1913 is an improvement over one, two, and three years of work of the same or poorer quality in 1904.

And yet, though much has been accomplished, much remains to be done, for each of the 366 institutions in the South bearing the name "college" or "university" firmly believes, whatever its creed, that it is predestined to become the leading institution for higher education in its community. Nevertheless, with all the education boards, foundations, associations, commissions, and conferences working either directly or indirectly toward the standardization of the southern college and the development of its efficiency, there remains the hope that many sham colleges may, within the next 10 or 12 years, be induced to stop conferring degrees and become good preparatory or industrial schools; that others may die from lack of patronage; and that "the righteous remnant" may thus be encouraged to continue to strive after ever-enlarging ideals of standards and of service.

B. WHAT SHOULD THE BACHELOR'S DEGREE REPRESENT?

By Miss ELEANOR LOHRY,
Goucher College, Baltimore, Md.

The question of the requirements for the A. B. degree in colleges for women is not primarily whether the degree should stand for precisely the same course of studies as the A. B. degree for men; neither is it a question of equality of mental endowment or of identity of sphere. Confusion of these points has muddled the issue.

The A. B. degree is necessarily a convention—it always has been; and its chief value now, as in the middle ages, is to serve as a symbol of scholastic accomplishment along certain fixed lines and in accordance with a predetermined standard.

The large majority of boys and girls leave school before they reach even the high-school grades. It is therefore wise that, in the brief period of preparation, they be taught as much as possible that will fit them to use hands and heads efficiently in those occupations into which they must enter immediately. The grammar and high schools are the places where manual training, cooking, dressmaking, stenography, and typewriting belong; unless young breadwinners can take advantage of the special schools where such vocational subjects are taught more thoroughly and in a more advanced manner than is possible in the public schools.

If college graduates feel the lack of special training in domestic science or business methods or pedagogy, let them go to the technical schools where these subjects are taught, just as the prospective doctor or lawyer or engineer goes on from the preliminary and fundamental courses of the college to the university. Let us keep the function of the college single and simple, and let us not lose sight of the fact that its business is not primarily to turn out bankers or storekeepers or housewives or milliners, but efficient men and women. Nevertheless,

it does at the same time aim to lay foundations for professional study and to furnish the mental grip which shall enable the graduate to grapple successfully with the technicalities of any vocation which it may be his destiny to pursue.

If by domestic science is meant cooking and serving meals and dressmaking, these have no place in the college curriculum. Time and labor saving devices multiply, and a trained mind can manipulate a vacuum cleaner or teach a servant to keep the kitchen sink clean or even work out a well-balanced dietary for the family without having had a domestic science course in college. But if domestic science means biology, hygiene, bacteriology, psychology, economics, and sociology, law as related to domestic relations, property, and banking, then I am for domestic science.

The aim of collegiate training is not to equip for the pursuits that "pay," but rather to fit for the life callings of parenthood, teaching, and social service, by educating the mind rather than the fingers, and by developing sanity of judgment, breadth of vision, courage and power to grapple with problems which must after all be solved largely by the few fortunate but responsible men and women who, by a slow, steady sifting process from childhood to maturity, have been found worthy to enter into these vocations. This may seem ideal rather than practical, but I firmly believe that unless the colleges realize that their A. B. degree must represent not merely hours of time and balanced grouping of subjects, but dynamic teaching of these subjects, a college diploma will have no more value for life than it has for commerce.

C. PUBLIC OPINION AND HIGHER EDUCATION OF WOMEN.

By EDWARD K. GRAHAM,
University of North Carolina.

Force of public sentiment will make colleges for women approximate what they should in the matter of standards just to the degree that the public believes that the education of women is a vital matter. If the public does not genuinely believe in the higher education of women, the instruments of that education will not do genuine work, and public opinion will remain indifferent as to their standards.

In the case of men, education has so won its way that it may almost be said to be the religion of our democracy. Ideas as to the sort of education that is best and the best methods of getting results change; but the belief that it is desirable for the individual and for society that every man shall train to the highest degree all of his talents has won triumphant acceptance.

Does this idea of the value of education hold in the case of women?

better or values her more highly because she is the sort that we call well educated? We shall have to face this question squarely before we can make headway in standardizing our colleges. We shall have to discover frankly how nearly we consider our girls equal to our men as free individual agents, worthy of the freedom of a liberal education, before we can make our instruments of education equal.

The sort of work one is to do in the world, and what value is placed on knowledge and the methods of knowledge in this work are of vital importance in standardizing our education. The expectation of being free to apply knowledge in competition where intellectual equipment is appreciated and paid for in esteem and in money and where unlimited progress is encouraged is an incalculable incentive to higher education. If from our colleges for men were eliminated the impulse of the fact that the men know that they are to be doctors, teachers, lawyers, business heads, ministers, or whatever else their ambition chose, there would be a shrinkage in the standards of these colleges quite beyond computation. Even where the men do not know what they are to be, they know they are to be *something*. They are steadily impressed with the public expectation that they are to be leaders, that they have intellectual responsibility, and that their position in society will depend on their use of the free opportunity to apply their education in work. So the opening of the old professions to women, the opportunities presented by the many forms of administrative work, and the introduction of new professions, promise proportionate stimulus to the higher education of women.

Competent administration of the home will doubtless remain woman's supreme business; but competent administration means freedom for women as well as for men; and not tyranny through the suppression of individuality. That the vocation of making an American home what it should be calls for the fullest intellectual equipment is too obvious to require comment. Not only because she is to be at the head of the spiritual life of the home, but because she is a human being, woman's education should be equal if not superior to that of man, and her intellectual life absolutely free.

D. KEATS FOR THE KITCHEN.

By LAWRENCE F. ABBOTT.

The Outlook.

Nothing can be done efficiently or well without the influence of a highly developed imagination. The railroad builder, the banker, the grocery storekeeper, the printer, the cook, the housekeeper, the mother, the editor, the newsboy, the carpenter, the blacksmith, the

in his work. This is the reason why the humanities—why poetry, literature, art, music—are essential parts of a truly vocational education. That is why Keats is for the kitchen as well as for the library. For poetry and her allied arts are not merely products of the imagination, but are producers of imagination.

Vocational education (the fruit of which is efficiency) and cultural education (the purpose of which is the cultivation, the seeding, the fertilization of the mind) are as interdependent and as essential one to the other as the plowing of the field and the reaping of the harvest. You can not have the cotton bale without the plowing and the fertilizer; but that man would be rightly called a stupid fanatic who should claim that the whole end and aim of the cotton planter is to plow with technical correctness, to fertilize with chemical accuracy, to learn the formulae of soil analysis, and to pay no attention to the final marketing and value of the crop. If I have any quarrel at all with the teachers of the humanities it is that since the days of the medieval schoolmen they have as a body been prone to lay this mistaken emphasis upon their work of technical cultivation and have too habitually ignored their real and important work, which is the production of a crop of men and women who shall see truth, love beauty, possess enthusiasm, and only thus become efficient members of society.

Life would be a hopeless round of drudgery if imagination did not enable us to see the beauty in its commonest tasks and commonest experiences. The deepest and most satisfying kind of beauty is the beauty of the fitness of things. It is not a lack of manual skill that gives us so many poor cooks; it is a lack of appreciation of the beauty of cooking. Beauty exists not in the external objects of nature, but in the imagination by which those objects are perceived and taken for our own selves and for our own enjoyment. Imagination which empowers us to possess the beauty of all nature and of all history is therefore in itself a priceless possession. It is this possession which teachers of the humanities can enable the pupils in their care to obtain; it is this possession which made Keats one of the very greatest poets of absolute beauty in the English language. It enabled him to see and to interpret to others the imperishable beauty in the commonplace incidents of village and pastoral life described in his immortal "Ode on a Grecian urn." In this poem Keats breathes a spirit which, if it were only permitted to do so, might lighten the drudgery of every farm, shop, counting room, and kitchen in the land. It is the spirit in which all the study of the humanities ought to be approached. It is a preeminent expression of what I venture to call the "Keats for the kitchen" doctrine of education, the doctrine that it is the duty of both politicians and culturalists to maintain stoutly that whatsoever things are true, beautiful, and good are the proper subjects of education.

XIII. CONCLUDING REMARKS ON THE CONFERENCE.

By WALTER H. PAGE,
Ambassador to Great Britain.

The largest problem that faces American civilization to-day is the building up of country life. No matter what attitude some of us may have toward the tasks the United States bears, we are obliged to come to this. We have just passed through a period of organization of the machinery of the modern world, making the city and the railroad, but the country has been left out. Now we must build it up. We all know that in the coming centuries, as in the past, the character and the vision of American life will come from the soil.

In our early days the characteristic of the people of the United States was individualism. Great as this was for the cause of democracy, it rested upon a false economic basis. A man's home can not be his castle, for he is mutually linked as his brother's keeper, whether he will or no. A larger vision and a larger liberty and a larger opportunity have come upon us as the task for our working hours. We must organize the country.

The historian of the progress of democracy could not write a more thrilling chapter than the events of the past 10 or 15 years, taking as the cue the note of the Conference for Education in the South. We began with the school and the child, and we end with them, of course; but every step has been toward a widening democratic ideal, to see how we could teach one another. Dr. Knapp let a flood of light on all this problem. I am not sure but that he was the greatest schoolmaster of the age.

So our discussions have come regularly, with no eccentricities, but with a broadening application of all that cooperation means. To till the soil, to train the children, to make the home, a work of continuous human service, I count these the greatest privileges that can fall to the lot of man. We have worked on a program to bring to pass the dream of the fathers, that our Republic shall be and remain the hope of the world.

INDEX.

Abbott, L. F., *Keats for the kitchen*, 81-82.
Adams, T. S., *The local assessor*, 37-38.
Aery, W. E., *The trend in negro education*, 75-76.
Agricultural aid, methods, 18.
Agricultural banking activities, Germany, 9.
Agricultural cooperation, 7.
Agricultural development, and railroads, 18.
Agricultural education, rural schools, 57.
Alabama, farm tenancy, 19.
Andrews, B. R., on education of women in the country, 41.
Arkansas, farm tenancy, 19.
Atlanta, Ga., development of agricultural resources of surrounding country, 18.
Beckham, B. M., *Social service and the country church*, 32-33.
Blue, F. O., *Results of improved assessment methods in West Virginia*, 38-39.
Bond, J. L., on college extension work, 71-72; on work of supervising rural schools, 51.
Brand, C. J., on community growing and handling of cotton, 17.
Branson, E. C., *Farm tenancy in the South*, 19-28.
Brooks, S. P., on college extension work, 73.
Brown, Hetty S., on education of women in the country, 40.
Business men, and the rural problem, 16-18.
Buttrick, Wallace, *Origin and development of (farm demonstration work)*, 27-28.
Caldwell, J. C., on cooperative market association, 17.
Campbell, J. P., on college extension work, 72-73.
Church, country, activities, 32-33.
Chilton, P. P., on education of women in the country, 41-42; on improvement of negro rural schools, 76; *The conference and the rural schools*, 77-78.
Club work, for boys and girls, 31.
Coates, T. J., *Cooperation and the rural schools*, 45; *Demonstration schools*, 57-58; on work of supervising rural schools, 50-51; *The educational awakening in Kentucky*, 54-56.
College extension work, 71-74.
Colleges, southern, improvements in standards, 77-82.
Colton, E. A., *Improvements in standards of southern colleges since 1900*, 77-82.
Commission on Accredited High Schools, 68-70.
Cook, A. S., *Rural school supervision*, 52.
Cook, Joe, *How to relieve the drudgery of women on the farm*, 44-45.
Cooper, W. G., on agricultural resources, 18.
Cooperation, conference, 7; papers, 7-15.
Cooperative market association, value, 17.
Corbet, L. C., *Cooperation from the grower's standpoint*, 8-9.
Corbly, L. J., *Changes in the normal school curriculum*, 61-62.
Cotton, community growing and handling, 17.
Cotton marketing, problem, 17.
Coulter, J. L., *Cooperative credit: the American need*, 12-13; on leading crops produced by southern farmers, 16.
Country church. *See* Church, country.
Country church conference, creed adopted, 34-35.
Country life, survey, 24.
Creamery, cooperative, 9-10.
Credit, cooperative, 12-13.
Credit associations, pioneer, 13-14.
Crops, leguminous, sure means for soil up-building, 17.
Davis, J. J., on rural problems, 18.
Degrees, colleges for women, 79-80.
Department of Agriculture. *See* United States Department of Agriculture.
Dillard, J. H., on negro education, 75-76.
Educational campaign, Kentucky, 55.
Book selling association, 10-11.
Exalt Henry. *Man and the Land*, 77-78.

Farm demonstration, schools, 57-58.
 Farm demonstration work, 27-31.
 Farm tenancy, system, 19-23.
 Farmers, southern, amounts expended to purchase feed for live stock, 16.
 Florida, farm tenancy, 19.
 Frayser, Mary E., on education of women in the country, 41.
 Frazier, F. B., on work of supervising rural schools, 51.
 Gardiner, H., on college extension work, 73.
 Gates, F. T., on farm demonstration work, 27.
 Georgia, farm tenancy, 19-21.
 Germany, agricultural banking activities, 9.
 Graham, Edward K., Public opinion and higher education of women, 80-81.
 Halbrook, W. E., Seven obstacles to cooperation, 11-12.
 Hanifan, L. J., Plans of State supervisors for rural school improvement, 50-51.
 Hardy, J. C., on education of women in the country, 40.
 Health, public, and rural church, 33.
 High schools, accredited, 68-70; Alabama, 67-68; review, 67-70; training rural teachers, 62-64.
 Higher education, women, 77-82.
 Hill, D. H., Conference on cooperation, 7.
 Hodgson, Harry, Business men and the rural problem, 16-18.
 Home maker, and the Department of Agriculture, 48-49.
 Hygiene, public, and rural church, 33.
 Illinois, farm tenancy, 19.
 Illiteracy, rural, 22-23.
 Industrial club work, and rural school work, 48.
 Jackson, E. R., Teaching woodlot management in rural schools, 58-57.
 Johnson, D. B., The conference on education of women in the country, 40-43.
 Johnson, L. C., The rural problem and transportation, 23-24.
 Kentucky, educational awakening, 54-56; farm demonstration schools, 58; farm tenancy, 19.
 Knapp, S. A., on farm demonstration work, 22.
 Langworthy, O. F., How the Department of Agriculture aids the home market, 48-49.
 Literature, good, and the country church, 34.
 Loan features, cooperative work, 9.
 Lord, Eleanor, What should the bachelor's degree represent? 79-80.
 Lord, I. E., The qualifications of women in the home, 46-47.
 Louisiana, farm demonstration work, 28-30.
 McLaurin, J. L., on cotton marketing problem, 17.
 Martin, O. B., The boys and girls' club work, 31.
 Maryland, farm tenancy, 19.
 Mississippi, farm tenancy, 19.
 Monahan, A. C., The need of a county unit, 52-54.
 Negroes, education, trend, 75-76.
 Newman, J. W., on soil upbuilding, 17.
 Normal schools, suggested changes in curriculum, 61-62.
 Oklahoma, farm tenancy, 19.
 Organization, units, rural schools, 52-54.
 Page, W. H., Concluding remarks on the conference, 83.
 Parrish, C. S., on college extension work, 72.
 Powell, Susie V., How can the country school as it now is help the women on the farm? 45; How can the girls' industrial club work be made a part of the rural school work? 48.
 Price, T. H., on Southern farmer, 18.
 Purdy, Lawson, the principles of assessment, 36-37.
 Railroads, and agricultural development, 18.
 Rall, E. E., The certification of teachers in the Southern States, 65-66.
 Randolph, Virginia E., work for negro children, 75.
 Raper, O. L., The need for taxation reform, 36.
 Reichardt, Eva, on education of women in the country, 42-43.
 Robinson, L. G., The pioneer credit associations in the United States, 13-14.
 Rolls, P. H., A country life survey, 24.
 Roudebush, Ruth, on college extension work, 73.
 Rural church. *See Church, country.*
 Rural problem and transportation, 23-24.
 Rural program papers, 16-26.

Rural schools, cooperation, 15; needs, 40-43; negroes, 75-76; problems, 50-66.

Russell, Leila A., on education of women in the country, 40.

Sanderson, E. D., College extension work, 71-74.

Sell, E. E., Teaching agriculture in the one-room rural school, 57.

Shuford, W. J., Typical cooperative enterprises, 9-11.

Snowden, Mason, Demonstration work in Louisiana, 28-30.

Social service, and the country church, 32-33.

Soil upbuilding, leguminous crops, 17.

South Carolina, farm tenancy, 19.

Southern States, certification of teachers, 65-66.

Stewart, J. S., Training rural teachers by means of high schools, 62-64.

Supervision, rural schools, 50-54.

Supervisors, State, plans for rural schools, 50-51.

Sydenstricker, Edgar, on farming conditions, 18.

Tate, W. K., on college extension work, 71-74; on work of supervising rural schools, 51.

Taxation, reform, 38-39.

Teachers, training and certification, 61-66.

Tenants, farming by, 19-23.

Thomas, J. S., on public high schools in Alabama, 67-68.

Tousley, E. M., Fundamental principles of cooperation, 7-8.

Unit, county, need of, 52-54.

United States, Department of Agriculture, and the home maker, 48-49.

Virginia, farm tenancy, 19.

Vocational training, agencies, 74.

Walker, N. W., The commission on accredited schools in the Southern States, 68-70.

West Virginia, farm tenancy, 19; improved assessment methods, 38-39.

Whitfield, H. L., An indictment of the rural school, 43.

Williams, E. W., The rural church and public health, 33.

Women, drudgery on the farm, how to relieve, 45-46; education in the country, 40-43; higher education, 77-82.

Wood-lot management, teaching, rural schools, 56-57.

Woofter, T. J., Some general principles with regard to certification of teachers, 64-65.